DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 261 204 CE 042 381

AUTHOR Pratley, Beryl
TITLE A Review of 16-19 Education. Signposts '85. [Second Edition].
INSTITUTION Further Education Unit, London (England).
REPORT NO ISBN-0-946469-245
PUB DATE Sep 85
NOTE 68p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Adult Education; College Programs; Comparative Analysis; Curriculum; Curriculum Development; Delivery Systems; Disabilities; Disadvantaged; Educational Change; Educational Demand; Educational Needs; Educational Objectives; Educational Policy; *Educational Trends; Enrollment; *Enrollment Trends; Foreign Countries; *General Education; Outcomes of Education; Participation; Part Time Students; Policy Formation; Postsecondary Education; Program Administration; Program Content; Program Evaluation; Public Policy; State of the Art Reviews; *Student Characteristics; Trend Analysis; Unemployment; *Vocational Education; Youth Programs
IDENTIFIERS Special Needs Students; *United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

Of those 16-year-olds who stay on in full-time education, almost half choose to do so in further (adult) education. Although the percentage of students enrolled in general education programs has fallen off slightly since 1980, this group still forms the largest single group of 16-to-19-year-old students in the United Kingdom. Of all of the areas of adult education, vocational preparation is the one that has developed most dramatically since 1980. The Youth Training Scheme, which was developed in 1983, merged two previously distinct programs--Unified Vocational Preparation and the Youth Opportunities Program. Services for special needs students and for students between the ages of 14 and 18 have experienced a particularly dramatic increase. Another recently developed alternative form of part-time study for unemployed youth is the Technical and Vocational Initiative Aim (TVIA). A state action plan implemented in Scotland in 1984 has made development of TVIA in that country particularly rapid, with about 650 40-hour prevocational modules already in existence in August 1984. (Appendixes to this review include participation statistics, examination entries of the major further education bodies in 1984, a list of objectives and cores of various programs of study, a glossary of abbreviations, and references and suggestions for further reading.) (MN)

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SIGNPOSTS '85

A review of 16-19 education

Beryl Pratley
Abingdon College
of Further Education

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ISBN 0 946469 245
September 1985

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Printed by The Chameleon Press Limited,
5-25 Burr Road, Wandsworth, London SW18 4SG

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Dear Sir/Madam,

SIGNPOSTS '85

Enclosed is a revised version of an FEU document commissioned from Beryl Pratley and first published in 1980. The original document proved to be a popular perspective of an increasingly complex scene. In 1985 the situation if anything is worse and the author in her introduction, accepts that this revised version will quickly date.

It remains a personal perspective, and its intended readership of teachers in colleges and schools "who may know their own teaching area well but may be less familiar with how it compares with other types of courses" remains its primary target. The large circulation, on request, of the first edition indicates that many others should find this edition useful.

Beryl Pratley structures her review around the type of commitment made by a young person to a particular occupation or type of study. Respective chapters therefore deal with courses of general education, vocationally specific education and pre-vocational education; and final chapters briefly review other aspects such as TVEI, the Scottish Action Plan and part-time study for the unemployed. Various appendices give some essential data for the reader who wishes to explore the 16-19 jungle in more depth.

Signposts '85 is not claimed to be a comprehensive account of the courses on offer, but it does attempt to trace the relationships between most of the courses and to describe their source.

Advance copies of this document have been made available to the Review of Vocational Qualifications Group in the hope that it may assist in their deliberations. It would be nice to think that following any recommendations that Group may make, any further editions of Signposts would be simpler than this edition or unnecessary! In the meantime this second edition appears to be as necessary as the first.

Yours faithfully,

Jack Mansell

JACK MANSELL
Chief Officer

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SIGNPOSTS '85

A Review of 16-19 Education

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1 In 1980, when the first edition of this book was produced, it was common to hear the arrangements for the education of 16–19 year olds referred to as 'a jungle'. Looking back from the position in which we now find ourselves (May 1985), the map of 1980 seems like highways through a desert – clear for miles, and a model of simplicity – compared with the tangle of paths now produced by competing planning authorities.

2 The scene is shifting constantly; every month seems to bring a fresh initiative, and this revised edition has been a long time coming because there has been a prolonged but vain hope that the scene would be static for long enough to be described. Inevitably, therefore, this review will quickly be out of date, so that the main description will again be of the paths which are relatively well-trodden, and of features which will give some coherence to what is potentially a most confusing educational area.

3 To give some coherence to a document of this kind, it is necessary to divide it into manageable sections. There are several possibilities; we can look at the area of 16–19 education from the point of view of the kinds of institution that provide it, by considering separately the work of sixth forms, sixth form colleges, colleges of further education, skill-centres, tertiary colleges, and so on. In this case there is so much overlap of provision that the account would soon become uncontrollable. We could divide courses into groups depending on the time taken to complete them, and indeed there have already been several surveys of one-year courses at 16+.

4 In fact, the review is divided, as before, on the basis of whether a commitment has been made by the young person to a particular occupation or type of study. However, the increased degree to which this choice is now deferred (by necessity created by unemployment in many cases) affects the balance of the review, and much more space than previously is given to vocational preparation courses. Other distinguishing features which will be referred to are:

(i) whether a course is integrated or a 'collection curriculum' of single subjects;

(ii) whether a course is designed by a central body and 'handed down', or designed by teachers themselves and validated externally. After a long period of teacher control there seems to be a swing back to central control of various kinds;

(iii) whether a course is based on a single institution, or is multi-agency. Is the student the responsibility only of a college, or in employment or on work experience? How many different agencies are in fact contributing to the educational experience?

5 The review is intended primarily for teachers in further education, and in schools, who may know their own teaching area well, but may be less familiar with how it compares with the aims, the content, and the structure of other types of courses. They may also find the review helpful in seeing where their specialist area fits into the total provision, which is complex, and has many overlaps. In further education, because of the arrangement of fairly independent departments or subject teams within colleges, it is easy for a lecturer to lose touch with developments outside his own field, and to have minimal contact with the thinking behind other curricula.

6 While attempting to provide some guidelines, this review cannot pretend to give a comprehensive account of all the courses on offer. It maps in general terms the broad strands of provision, and the various types of qualification. It traces the relationship between the courses in colleges and the world of work to which most of them lead directly, and it looks at the different ways in which the courses are designed and developed, and where and by whom this design work is done. In further education there is duplication of work which is done in schools, and by employers. These overlapping areas are examined, and the reasons for some of the duplication indicated.

7 Some other guides to the jungle which have been published are mentioned in the bibliography. Most of them look at this area from rather different angles, and some of them are considerably more comprehensive than this review can be. This document is an overview for those wanting a broad explanation. Further reading is suggested.

8 These themes will run through each of the sections, which are briefly outlined here:

Chapter 2 Assuming that the student has not yet committed himself to a specific career, and may not want to enter the working world immediately, he is likely to be following some kind of general education course, probably based on a combination of GCE subjects. In fact this path is the one least likely to lead to a quick career decision, as it is the one most likely to lead to higher education, and further prolonged study before employment.

Chapter 3 In contrast to these rather broad-based schemes, there is still available a huge number of courses, both full and part-time, for those young people who have already made their initial career choice. The client group for these courses has changed dramatically in the last

four years, however, and the courses themselves (and the bodies providing them) are also undergoing some radical changes. The traditional apprentice has been substantially replaced by Youth Training Scheme trainees, but the pattern of combining off-the-job training with practical work experience remains. The distinction between the training and the education process is a difficult one to make, both in theory and in practice, and it will be discussed later, but this group of courses provides specific vocational preparation which either immediately precedes work, or is integrated with the early years of work. Students may find themselves attending college part-time, on day-release, full-time, or in blocks of several weeks at a time. There are some jobs where it is difficult to find a related further education course, but one would find this difficult to believe when browsing through lists of courses such as the Inner London Education Authority's annual *Guide to Further and Higher Education in Inner London*, or the subjects offered in examinations by the City and Guilds of London Institute. Radio, shipbuilding, bakery, forestry, mastic asphalting, dress design, toymaking, cartography – all human life is there, as they say in the Sunday papers. The DES statistics branch produces a document called 'List 209', which names the courses in further education establishments leading to qualifications (and there are an increasing number in addition which do not). This list runs to 189 pages (and rising) – although it does include advanced work, as well as the non-advanced work which is the subject of this study. Within this group of courses, for students in employment, there has been a transformation of the course structure in recent years, with the movement to rationalise the training and education of technicians and the qualifications they obtain. The certification of these students is still substantially in the hands of the City and Guilds and the Royal Society of Arts, with the newly constituted Business and Technician Education Council (B/TEC) looking after both technological education, and a wide range of business courses at and beyond technician level.

Chapter 4 The review looks at the inter-relationship and overlaps in the area of pre-vocational education: that path which is taken by an increasing number of young people who wish (or are forced) to delay a choice of specific occupation. Within this grouping, the Youth Training Scheme is discussed, although for many it might also quite properly be discussed in Chapter 3.

There are a variety of full-time courses aimed at general vocational preparation, usually pre-employment, which help students to make an informed job choice during the courses, and also provide opportunities for continued general education and personal development. It is in this area that the jungle is currently most impenetrable, and the age group has also changed, since recent

developments make it impossible to discuss pre-vocational courses without referring to 14 year olds. In fact, the focus of concern for 1985 is no longer 16-19, but 14-18.

There are entire new groups of students being provided for; the 14-18s are one, and students with special educational needs another, with all LEAs now having to make provision after 16 for the handicapped.

Chapter 5 At this point, the paths of 1980 have been bulldozed or become overgrown. Unified Vocational Preparation is no more, although its shadow lives on in YTS; the courses specifically for the unemployed have also been subsumed in YTS. However, there are a number of new features in the landscape without which a review of this kind would be incomplete, and this chapter describes the progress of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative; developments of an entirely different pattern taking place in Scotland, and the role of the examining bodies.

9 That, in broad outline, is the scope of this document. Three additional needs emerge. One is for a list of references, which will be found in the bibliography; the second is the statistical breakdown of the destination of school leavers and the courses they are studying, which is appended; and the third is for a translator's guide to the many bodies and courses which are habitually only referred to by their initials. The proliferation of acronyms has been so marked over the last few years that the production of glossaries has itself become a cottage industry. However, for the sake of completeness, a list of the main sets of initials is included for those who might wonder but be afraid to ask.

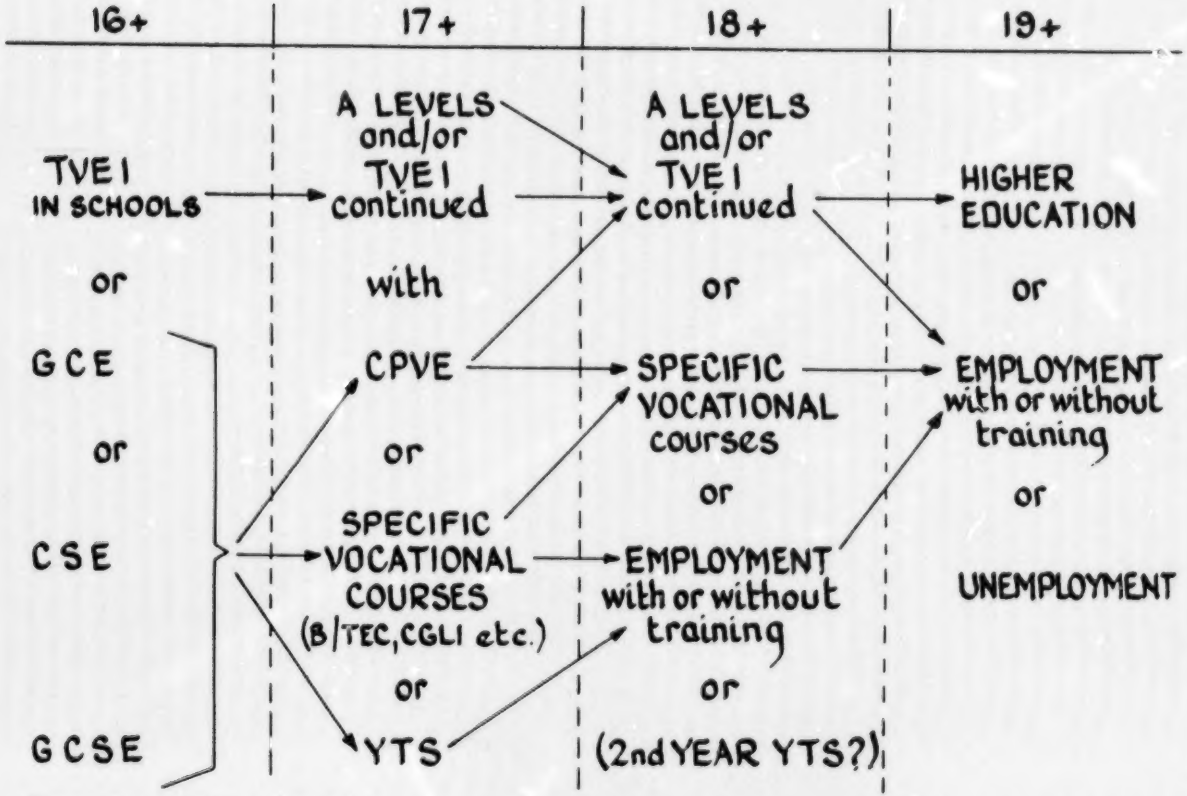

Figure 1 16-19: The Main Routes

CHAPTER TWO

General Education with no particular vocational choice

10 Of those 16 year olds who stay on in full-time education, almost half choose to do so in further education (a significant increase in the last decade), and those following GCE courses combine to form the largest single group of these, although in the latter half of the decade the proportion taking GCE has fallen as a percentage of the whole.

11 It is possible for a 16 year old to leave school or go to a college of further education, and follow a course of study which is very broadly similar to the one he might have studied if he had stayed on into his school sixth form.

12 In neither institution will his studies form a 'course' in the sense that they relate closely to each other and have a unified set of aims. A GCE course is a prime example of what Bernstein termed 'a collection curriculum'.

13 **Course Design** The course design consists of making a choice of subjects from a selection on offer, and this selection may itself be constrained by timetabling, or the availability of specialist staff and facilities. There are sometimes attempts to produce integration, as for instance in the Schools Council Integrated Science Project, or by studying literature and history of the same period, but these often prove particularly difficult because the same group of students will not be studying all their subjects together.

14 **Validation** Within an individual subject syllabus, there is often very little scope for teacher or student choice, as the syllabuses are for the most part determined externally, and heavily dominated by the university examining boards who validate them. In traditional academic subjects, particularly at 'A' level, there is heavy pressure to complete work which is an introduction to a university degree course, and 'O' level is largely designed to be a stepping-stone to higher study, even if 'O' level students do not proceed any further. The less traditional subjects, such as home economics, and technical drawing, are also designed in such a way as to fit into this pattern. The imminent changes described later in the chapter will make little difference to this basic validation pattern.

15 **Aim** The successful completion of an 'O' level course is a career qualification of a different kind from most of the others which will be described in this review. The courses are designed for 16 to 17 year olds who are at a particular stage in their cognitive development. It

was originally supposed that around 25% of the age group would be able to pass 'O' level, and employers and higher education institutions therefore use the examinations as a selection device. Possession of an 'O' level certificate is accepted as evidence of a certain level of mental ability, and it is mental ability of a particular kind. The structure of most 'O' level courses excludes any direct preparation for adult life or the world of work, especially in the area of skills acquisition. In that the courses are primarily designed for use in schools, where cognitive development is a major curriculum aim, it is arguable that they should not include any specific vocational preparation, but transited into further education, they form a marked contrast with the structure of many of the other courses on offer.

16 The 1944 Education Act sanctioned the dual provision in schools and colleges, and FE has been able to provide a 'second chance', or an alternative route to higher education, a feature which has led to the duplication of provision in many areas.

17 Under the selective secondary school system, many children were unable to follow courses leading to the Higher School Certificate, and later to the General Certificate of Education at 'A' or 'O' level. There were some subjects that it was not always possible to offer at examination in particular schools, and the keen student might transfer to a local college in order to study these. Science education had often been sparsely provided for in girls' schools up to the early 1960s, and this is a particular instance where a college might have provided supplementary courses. More recent examples are business studies subjects and technological courses such as engineering workshop theory and practice.

18 The question of the 'ethos' of an institution is important in the areas where this kind of choice still exists, and a number of surveys have shown the background to students' choices.* There has however been a marked growth in the number of tertiary colleges which have been established in recent years. In some areas, such as Richmond upon Thames, there is a total break at 16, with the tertiary college the sole provider after that. In others, e.g. Hampshire, the tertiary college exists alongside other arrangements. Since this is a review of courses, it is not intended to develop the theme of institutional arrangements, but this is a rich area of study.

19 A few colleges allow students to follow courses leading to the Certificate of Secondary Education, which allows for much more

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* *DEAN Judy and STEEDS Arthur. 17+, the new 6th form in schools and FE. (NFER/Nelson, 1982)*

STRUGNELL Ray. Mapping and Reviewing Local Provision at 16-19. (FEU RP 158, 1984. To be published as Linking Schools and Colleges)

teacher control of the curriculum and examinations than the GCE, but most authorities regard this as substantially the schools' domain, usually on the grounds that if the student has tried CSE at school and obtained low grades, there are probably more suitable courses for him to follow in FE than a straight repeat of his school work.

20 **GCSE** From 1988, however, the separation of GCE and CSE disappear, as the Secretary of State has made the decision that GCE and CSE shall be combined in a single system of examination at 16+, the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). Since the raising of the school leaving age (ROSLA) in 1973/74, a vastly increased number of pupils have taken CSE examinations or a few 'O' level subjects. The 1985 White Paper, *Better Schools*, quotes 27% of pupils gaining at least 5 'O' levels or CSE 1's, and 75% leaving with at least 5 graded 'O' levels or CSEs (1983 statistics). There has been pressure from parents and employers over the perceived differences between CSE and GCE, and except at Grade 1, there have been continual problems of currency for the CSE. Many employers, for instance, have preferred to ignore it. The decision to merge the two systems has been a long time in the making. The White Paper *Secondary School Examinations: A Single System of Examining at 16+* (October 1978) set out proposals for a single GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education), to be awarded on a single subject basis, with a single seven-point grading scale which will cover the range from 'O' level Grade A to CSE Grade 5, with some alternative harder and easier papers in certain subjects. *Examinations at 16+, a Statement of Policy* was produced in November 1982, confirming that the single system would be introduced only if the Government was satisfied that the standards of the existing system could be safeguarded through the establishment of national criteria for syllabuses and assessment procedures.

21 One important organisational prerequisite was that the examination boards should be sorted out by a series of mergers and regroupings, to achieve five GCE boards working with five CSE boards. This reorganisation is now settled, with examining groups which will concentrate on particular areas of the country. The intention has been that the boards should then not merely merge GCE and CSE examinations, but match grades to clearly defined standards at all grade levels.

22 In 1983, the Schools Council was dismantled and replaced by the School Curriculum Development Committee, and the Secondary Examinations Council. The latter has been assiduously working on the development of 16+ ever since. The major criteria (against which syllabuses will be developed) have been published for each subject, and in most subjects there are grade descriptions available which demonstrate the difference in attainments of candidates awarded

different grades. Eventually, the assessment system will be based on grade-related criteria, which are intended to give more exact descriptions of what candidates must be able to do to achieve a particular grade. This development of grade-related criteria is currently proving both difficult and contentious.

23 As may be expected, these changes will not be implemented with the whole-hearted approval of all teachers, who have traditionally enjoyed a good deal of autonomy in the UK over the choice of syllabuses, content, and styles of teaching. The moves are being interpreted as shifting control more to the centre, and placing it in the hands of the DES. It will be interesting to see to what extent the older allegations about the power of the universities to control the curriculum fade in comparison to the new centralism.

24 **CEE** It is necessary at this point to make a reference to the Certificate of Extended Education (CEE), a single-subject award designed to follow the CSE at 6th form level, but never officially given more than pilot approval by the Secretary of State. It was intended to end this award in 1986, with the full introduction of a new 17+ award, the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education, but some strong rearguard action is being mounted to preserve it, and it represents another path on the map which may yet make more turnings. It will be discussed in more detail in the context of the new 17+ award, in Chapter 4.

25 As the earlier reference to the establishment of tertiary colleges suggests, there are some profound questions being asked about the role and purpose of further education at the level of full-time 16-19 provision, partly because of the kind of overlaps of function which have just been discussed; partly because of the population changes affecting the age group, and partly because of the effects on colleges of the influence of the Manpower Services Commission.

26 In December 1980, a Government review group produced *Education for 16-19 year olds* (the Macfarlane Report) which avoided recommending what LEAs should do to organise 16-19 education, but made recommendations as to the groups for whom provision should be made. LEAs were to decide for themselves in which institutions the work should be based. In fact, with regard to 'A' levels, the Macfarlane Report appeared positively to encourage the provision of courses by several institutions in an area, in order to increase the choice of subjects. Since then, there have been repeated proposals by a number of political and training bodies for Government-led reorganisation, notably on the question of funding, and mainly featuring the proposal for a single ministerial responsibility, instead of the split between the DES and MSC. However, the 1985 White Paper on the *Education and Training of Young People*, again avoids the

organisational issue, although there are moves to fund more non-advanced, work-related further education (NAFE) from MSC resources. The extent to which this will affect the provision of GCE work in further education is as yet unknown, as is the answer to such questions as 'Is 'O' level Accounts a vocational course?'

27 The organisational discussions have become more critical as demographic changes creep up the age-range. The population peak of 16–19 year olds was reached in 1982–83, and the next decade sees a total decline of around three quarters of a million. In the big cities, there has been an even faster decline, because of movement away from the city centres. The survey in the Macfarlane Report shows a total percentage decline in excess of 35% in at least one quarter of all local education authorities.

28 The implications for this kind of reduction are serious for schools and colleges alike; they are even more serious for areas where two kinds of institution are handling broadly similar work, and a variety of remedies are being implemented or proposed. It should not be supposed that these rearrangements have been prompted exclusively by falling school rolls; there are some powerful educational arguments for the forming of, for instance, 6th form colleges or centres grouping work at 16+ for several schools, or tertiary colleges, which embrace all 16+ work for schools and colleges in an area, or the many other varied co-operative course sharing schemes between colleges and schools. However, there have been some moves which suggest anxiety, such as authorities refusing to allow students to study 'O' and 'A' levels at local colleges until all school 6th form places have been taken up, and in at least one case, preventing GCE full-time courses from being run in colleges at all.

29 It remains to be seen what resolution will be found for the essential differences in curriculum philosophy between schools and colleges. The schools' task is to concentrate on a curriculum plan which assists their pupils' cognitive development and their major aim is to prepare the children in a general sense for life outside. In the later years of schooling, the curriculum consists of a selection from sets of syllabuses, largely laid down by the universities, with teachers being responsible for interpreting and implementing the syllabus content. Attempts to make this traditional curriculum more 'vocational' will be described in the last chapter.

30 In spite of the existence in colleges of this school-type study, the traditional college course, designed for those in work, is based on industry's analysis of the tasks to be performed by its employees. This very different basis for curriculum design is described in Chapter 3, and there are areas where the two approaches are being forced together, as we shall see in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER THREE

Education and Training: Routes for those who have made a career decision (or obtained work)

31 It has not been possible to make simple revisions to this chapter; in effect the entire map has changed, both in respect of what is provided and who is providing it. Like a growing new town, some of the ancient landmarks remain, surrounded by new structures and new ways of doing things. The planning committee is in continuous session, working on the developments for the next decade.

This chapter will review first the main providers, then some legislative background, and the main strands of policy for the provision of job-related training.

32 **The Providers** The providing institutions are primarily the colleges and the examining bodies. Their roots are closely intertwined, and their history is interesting. The growth of the Mechanics Institutes as providers of technical education was rapid during the first half of the 19th century, and many modern technical colleges (and some of the technological universities and polytechnics) can trace their origins to these institutes. They eventually formed themselves into a Union of Institutions which was linked to the Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacture and Commerce (the RSA). Members of the institutes were allowed some of the facilities of this learned society, which provided a central organisation for the Union. In 1855, the Society announced its first public examinations which were run on a regional basis, for practical reasons, by local unions of Institutes. Here, then, were the roots of the present system, with the RSA and the Regional Examining Bodies (of which there were six) all conducting examinations for further education. The first technological examinations of the RSA were held in 1873, and a number of City companies contributed prizes. In 1878 these companies announced their scheme for the foundation of the City and Guilds of London Institute, to run courses and examinations in technical subjects, and this section of the RSA's work was handed over to the CGLI to develop, with the RSA retaining responsibility for commercial examining. The rest of the City and Guilds' history is amply documented in the book by Jennifer Long which was published to celebrate the Institute's centenary. The RSA's examinations in business studies, especially in secretarial and office skills, have been available to schools since 1927.

33 For almost 100 years, the CGLI, with the Regional Examining Bodies, was responsible for the setting and maintenance of standards in the education and training of craftsmen and technicians. In 1967, a committee under the chairmanship of Dr H L Haslegrave was given the brief 'to review the provision for courses suitable for technicians at all levels . . . and to consider what changes are desirable in the present structure of courses and examinations'. The Haslegrave report of 1969 pointed out the deficiencies of the pattern of courses and examinations for technicians, in terms of their unsuitability for fulfilling needs both at that time, and in the era of technological change which was to come. The committee recommended new national arrangements for the administration of a unified pattern of courses both for technicians in industry (TEC) and for business and office studies (BEC). The Technician Education Council eventually began operations in March 1973, and the Business Education Council in May 1974, with corresponding organisations in Scotland (SCOTEC and SCOTBEC). Both Councils took many of their administrators from the CGLI, whose technician level work TEC replaced.

34 **B/TEC** TEC and BEC set up rather different award structures, with TEC awards based on a unit system which a candidate could build up into Certificates and Diplomas. BEC awards were generally based on integrated course designs. BEC was able to learn from a number of TEC's early experiences, and its administrative arrangements were rather different. It was apparent from the beginning, however, that two separate organisations could not efficiently meet the needs of candidates and colleges, and in 1982 their two councils recommended that they should be replaced by a new single body, the Business and Technician Education Council (B/TEC). The Secretary of State, whose action established the two parent bodies (although they are registered companies) was asked to recommend the changes to the Government. The Government established the joint body on 1 January 1983, and B/TEC took over from BEC and TEC on 1 October of that year. B/TEC's own policy statement is that it 'exists to advance the quality and availability of work related education for those in, or preparing for, employment. The fundamental aim of the council is that students on B/TEC courses develop the necessary competence in their careers in their own, employers' and the national interest'.

35 For the time being, B/TEC has retained the existing structure of its major awards, and is concentrating on merging the administrative arrangements for the single organisation. The previous committee structure was replaced by nine Boards, representative of areas of industry and commerce. These Boards are responsible for identifying course needs, and developing the guidelines and curricula for these courses. There are Boards for Agriculture; Business and Finance;

Computing and Information Systems; Construction; Design; Distribution, Hotel and Catering and Leisure Services; Engineering; Public Administration; Science. In addition, there is cross-Board work where it appears to be necessary, for instance, in modern languages, and in continuing education (previously called post-experience).

36 There are three levels of qualification in Business Studies; General, National and Higher, and the qualifications are offered in two forms; the Certificate and Diploma. Most full-time students study for a Diploma. The courses are modular in structure, continuously assessed by assignments which are based either on single modules, or cross-modular, to encourage an integrative approach. Except in core modules at the General level, there are no B/TEC set final examinations, although centres design and set their own. Standard setting is achieved by a large number of part-time moderators, mainly serving teachers, and a smaller number of full-time ones.

37 At General level, a Certificate is awarded for a one-year study of three Core modules and one Option module; a Diploma is awarded for a study of three Core and five Option modules over one year's full-time or two years' part-time study. At National level, there are general Core modules, and Core modules related to the work of particular Boards, which, with the Option modules allow study which permits specialisation relevant to a particular career, and sometimes carrying exemption from the requirements of professional bodies. For a National Certificate, four Common Core, two Board Core and two Option modules are required, and the Diploma requires an additional four Option modules.

38 In the technical areas, the programmes are composed of self-contained units, each separately assessed, and the equivalent of the cross-modular work to be found in the Business area has yet to be developed. Colleges group units into a programme of related work, sometimes co-operating with each other in this provision, particularly at the higher levels. Units are matched to levels 1 to 5, with 5 the most difficult. Certificate and Diploma programmes will never go higher than 3, and there is a recently announced intention to merge 4 and 5 into a new level 'H'. Any mode of study is acceptable. Certificates are generally awarded after 15 units have been successfully completed, and a Diploma is worth 25 units. Some parts of a course may be worth two units, and there are subject for subject exemptions at various levels, for example, an 'O' level pass in certain subjects carries exemption from level 1.

39 Programmes are largely devised by colleges in collaboration with local industry, to meet particular local needs. Standard units provided

by B/TEC may be used, as well as college-devised ones. It is fair to say that the great majority of programmes were in fact made up from standard units. An FEU survey of the early years of TEC and its impact on colleges suggested that around 85% of the first round of programmes consisted of standard units.

40 **B/TEC and Curriculum Control** In 1975, TECNEWS reported one of the council's main aims to be the production of 'a much better system of technician education at little or no extra cost'. Any college lecturer who has been involved in B/TEC developments over this decade will be glad to tell you how much of his own time has gone into its development. Many of the costs of the development have been hidden by colleges and LEAs allowing staff to use their teaching time on the development of courses, and by the many hours of voluntary labour which staff have put into the work, and only comparatively recently have formal arrangements been made to provide some of this time.

41 The next few paragraphs will refer separately to 'TEC' and 'BEC', since in curriculum terms the two branches of B/TEC remain distinct. Pointers to future developments are contained in the 1984 B/TEC document *Policies and Priorities into the 1990s*.

42 **TEC** The size of the task facing the colleges in the development of TEC courses stemmed from the the policy of making each college responsible for its own programmes. That means that the college determines the content and structure of the courses, the standard of intake of the students, the teaching methods to use, and makes its own decisions about exemptions and student failures. The college has to show that it has the resources to run the programme, that there is a need in the area for 'graduates' of the type it will produce, and that approval has been given by the appropriate authorities.

43 The curriculum for TEC courses, then, was at least in theory under the control of the providing colleges, working in co-operation with industry to satisfy local conditions. Given that teachers often complain about the degree of control exercised over their activities by examination boards, it might seem slightly cowardly of them to have adopted standard units offered to them by TEC, when the opportunity was granted to design their own courses from scratch. This may be so, but the pressure to get courses running faced many lecturers with a massive task, and they could be forgiven for trying to reduce some of the work involved. A system of courses was designed to replace the previous provision of about 300 courses, involving over a quarter of a million students in over 500 colleges, and it was implemented quickly. Because of the shortage of FE staff in some subject areas, the task of preparing college units and assessments often fell to lecturers who had a full teaching timetable, and the work went

on under considerable pressure. This pressure was increased by the widespread assumption that course units needed to be expressed in terms of behavioural objectives. Many FE lecturers are still not teacher trained, and the writing of behavioural objectives was a skill quite unfamiliar to many of them. There were no trials or pilot schemes for TEC, and the staff development which took place to help lecturers with their own work was very largely the responsibility of the colleges and local authorities, with the colleges of education (technical) and the FE Staff College, Coombe Lodge, playing their part. The result was feverish activity taking place simultaneously all over the country. Some colleges chose to co-operate with others in producing submissions which were common to a group of colleges, thereby cutting down some of the work. The increased confidence with which colleges have more recently approached the obtaining of reapproval has been most marked.

44 The difficulties caused by the unfamiliarity to many of the behavioural objectives model were reflected in the widespread assumption that the curriculum development process need consist only of the statement of these objectives. In some cases, lists of objectives were generated which were merely a restatement of an existing syllabus; there was little attempt on these occasions at a critical analysis of how far these syllabuses were themselves suited to the task of fitting technicians for a changing world. The objectives were the basis of the assessments used, but there were few guidelines on how these objectives should be converted into good classroom practice, and it is this stage of any curriculum development which is crucial.

45 The demands of TEC stimulated curriculum development where there was very little before, and TEC itself set up a sub-committee to look at research and development relating to its work. Those involved, in TEC, in the colleges, and in industry, became more expert in curriculum issues, to the benefit of future developments, and BEC learned a great deal from some of TEC's early difficulties.

46 The FEU has published a major study of the development and implementation of TEC in colleges, and the NFER has conducted a long-term study of student progress, progression, and careers success.

47 **BEC** To a far greater extent than TEC, BEC sought to achieve a particular philosophy of Business Education which departed from previous practice. The policy statements stress the importance of the vocational orientation of the awards, which can lead on to a variety of careers in business. To achieve this emphasis on a foundation of vocational education, great emphasis is laid on the need to integrate the teaching of subjects which had hitherto been dealt with largely as independent disciplines. Running through the modular structure are

four major 'Central Themes', which BEC identified as necessary for all those engaged in business activities. These themes are: (i) an understanding for the role of money in business; (ii) an understanding of the importance of people in business life; (iii) the capacity for clear self expression, and (iv) a familiarity with analytical techniques, and the problems of work in a technological environment.

48 **Integration and the Colleges** Once again, though, there was some very heavy developmental work demanded of teachers, mainly on the integrative aspects of BEC courses. Teams of teachers have had to plan teaching approaches which stress the links between subject areas, and the course work demands are for cross-modular assignments to be done by students. In other words, assignments have to be completed which satisfy a number of learning objectives across several modules. A great deal of work has gone into the preparation of assignments, and here again, the necessary staff development work was the responsibility of groups of colleges, the colleges of education (technical), and the FE staff college, although BEC itself organised some workshops and published sample assignments, and the second time around, NATFHE was more successful in squeezing some development time out of the LEAs.

49 One problem with the integrated approach seems to have been that although Business Education has been well supplied with subject specialists, their own education has not always equipped them with the breadth of viewpoint necessary for teaching on BEC courses.

50 In considering the integration of courses, it is particularly interesting to consider the role of general or liberal studies. In the still active debate about the differences between education and training, education is seen to be concerned with ideas of personal development and social concern, and with a wider perspective than job-specific training. This view was given weight in the technical education context by the near-compulsory introduction into technical courses of a 'liberal' element. The White Paper on Technical Ecucation (1956) stressed the need for students to develop a broad outlook and a sense of human values, as well as technical skills, and Circular 323 (1957) *Liberal Education in Technical Colleges*, set out ways in which this might be done. The City and Guilds supported the idea of a broad approach by specifying the amounts of teaching time which should be spent on liberal or general studies. The content of the courses was flexible, usually taught by non-technical staff, and had varying degrees of success. The courses were rarely assessed externally, although the role of competence in English as a factor contributing to success in technical examinations was often emphasised. The main point to stress, however, was that liberal studies was a compulsory element only of the technical or science student's curriculum. If the rest of the

student body was seen as in need of any broadening of their education, they were provided with it as a college decision, and patterns of provision varied widely. Moreover, liberal studies was in general grafted on to the course. Circular 323 states 'the teacher of a scientific or technical subject, with whom the students spend most of their time, is in the best position to inculcate habits of reflection and free enquiry which are the mark of an educated and liberal mind'. Despite this view, and the attempts of some colleges to produce integrated courses of ralated studies, liberal studies was consistently viewed as something extra to the main body of the course. BEC and TEC were able to avail themselves of 20 years of experience of ways of achieving the aim of liberalising the curriculum, and did so with quite different results.

51 TEC provided for separate units for General and Communications Studies, which, since colleges have made their own submissions, tended to reflect a college's practice in the past. Although it laid down that 15% of course time should be devoted to this work, TEC deliberately never issued standard units for them, with the result that individual submissions have displayed a wide variety of quality and content.

52 BEC took a quite different view, as the first policy statement shows:

'Courses leading to BEC awards will be designed to provide a broad educational experience including an understanding of the concepts illustrated by the Central Themes. Therefore, Council has decided that within its overall course framework it will not require a separate package labelled 'liberal' or 'general' education for which a percentage of the total teaching and learning time should be set aside'.

53 **B/TEC – the future** The distinct lines of thought of the two originating bodies are brought together in the September 1984 B/TEC document, *Policies and Priorities into the 1990s*. There is a section on 'inter-disciplinary themes' which acknowledges that while engineers, for instance, will need training in financial management, and administrators in computer technology, these themes cannot be handled as 'bolt-on extras'. While there is acknowledgement that certain personal qualities and abilities will be critical to success at work, it is intended to encourage attention to these personal qualities through students' vocational studies, not through separate curricular items. It is no longer intended to give 'obligatory status'to any individual subject, and its inclusion will depend on its relevance to the course aims or future progression. This applies to Communications and Mathematics, as well as to General Studies. In theory, this should lead to a return to the laudable aspiration of the Circular 323 quoted above, that the specialist subject teacher is best placed to foster the

spirit of reflection and enquiry. B/TEC is currently receiving a number of enquiries from technology departments asking if they can really drop general studies from their courses. The implications of 323 may still not be fully understood!

54 **CGLI and RSA** Mention has already been made of the historic connection between the Royal Society of Arts and the City and Guilds of London Institute. Both offer examinations based on syllabuses which are drawn up by expert practitioners, both teachers and industrialists. The CGLI examinations have generally been designed around the demands of a complete course of study; the RSA has generally offered more single-subject examinations. This distinction is blurred, however, since RSA offer some grouped courses at different levels, and CGLI has in recent years embarked on a number of different certification systems. First, it developed awards in Communications and Numeracy, to complement its existing craft provision. Developments in the vocational preparation field are fully described in Chapter Four, and this has been an important departure for CGLI. There are also some radical changes on the way in the certification of craft courses.

55 Because of the economic climate, and the widespread collapse of the old apprenticeship system, it was becoming increasingly apparent that award systems based on several years of part-time study integrated with an apprenticeship were becoming inappropriate. Moreover, many of the separately numbered courses (of which there are several hundred) had substantial areas of overlap in content. In 1980, the CGLI set up a Policy Steering Sub-Committee of its Joint Advisory Committee for Engineering, under the Chairmanship of Mr G Hargreaves, to 'recommend the structure and range of schemes for those using craft skills appropriate to the needs of industry in the 1980s'. The committee was to take into account the needs of both formally and non-formally trained students. The Hargreaves report was published in 1982, and its major impact on CGLI has been to encourage the development of certificates for skill competence in limited areas relevant to particular occupations. A number of competency certificates will add up to a statement of skill standards which should relate to the demands of particular jobs. The CGLI have analysed the skill requirements of a number of engineering craft occupations, and identified a number of skills which were common across them. It was supposed that if such an analytical certification system were established, overlap would be reduced along with the total number of schemes, and the process of qualification by skill development rather than time-serving would be speeded up. There are plans to make this form of certification available across the full range of CGLI certificated work.

56 The CGLI's traditional sphere of activity has been productive industry, but it also covers a number of 'service' industries such as Hairdressing, Catering and Home Economics. Its role in Vocational Preparation with its Foundation courses is described in Chapter Four. The devising of syllabuses and assessment approvals are in the hands of advisory and examination committees composed of further education teachers, and industrial and professional representatives. Thus curriculum control is in the hands of practitioners. The pace of industrial change is such that the breaking up of the old examination structure, and its replacement by skill certificates is likely to accelerate, as fewer and fewer students embark on the type of apprenticeship programme which takes them through a four or five year craft course.

57 It is possible for a craft student with CGLI certification to progress to study with B/TEC at Technician level, but this progression is negotiated on a subject by subject, industry by industry basis. An example of the potential range of activity, and possible routes of progression in engineering is given in fig 2, taken from a Schools Council mapping study.*

58 **RSA** The syllabuses and course content for RSA examinations are similarly in the hands of committees of teachers and employers. The most common model is the single subject award in an aspect of commerce or office practice. Group awards are available, specifying base subjects with options that must be examined at one sitting. Group awards are created by combining single subject syllabuses, so there is always the possibility of obtaining some certification, even if the whole group award is failed.

59 The CGLI and RSA both offer their examinations two or three times a year, and it is not uncommon for a student to progress through more than one level in a year, especially under the RSA structure.

60 **Other Examining Bodies** Mention has already been made of the connection between the CGLI and the Regional Examining Bodies. The RSA has two major rivals in the limited field of office skills examinations, as the London Chamber of Commerce and Pitmans both serve a significant number of candidates for commercial work.

However, there is an enormous list of other bodies, some entertainingly obscure, which certify practitioners in a wide variety of trades, professions and industries. Many of them are quite independent, while others accept passes at various levels in, for instance, B/TEC awards as equivalent to their own examinations.

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* *Mapping and Reviewing the Pattern of 16-19 Education, M Locke & J Bloomfield, Schools Council Pamphlet 20. 1982.*

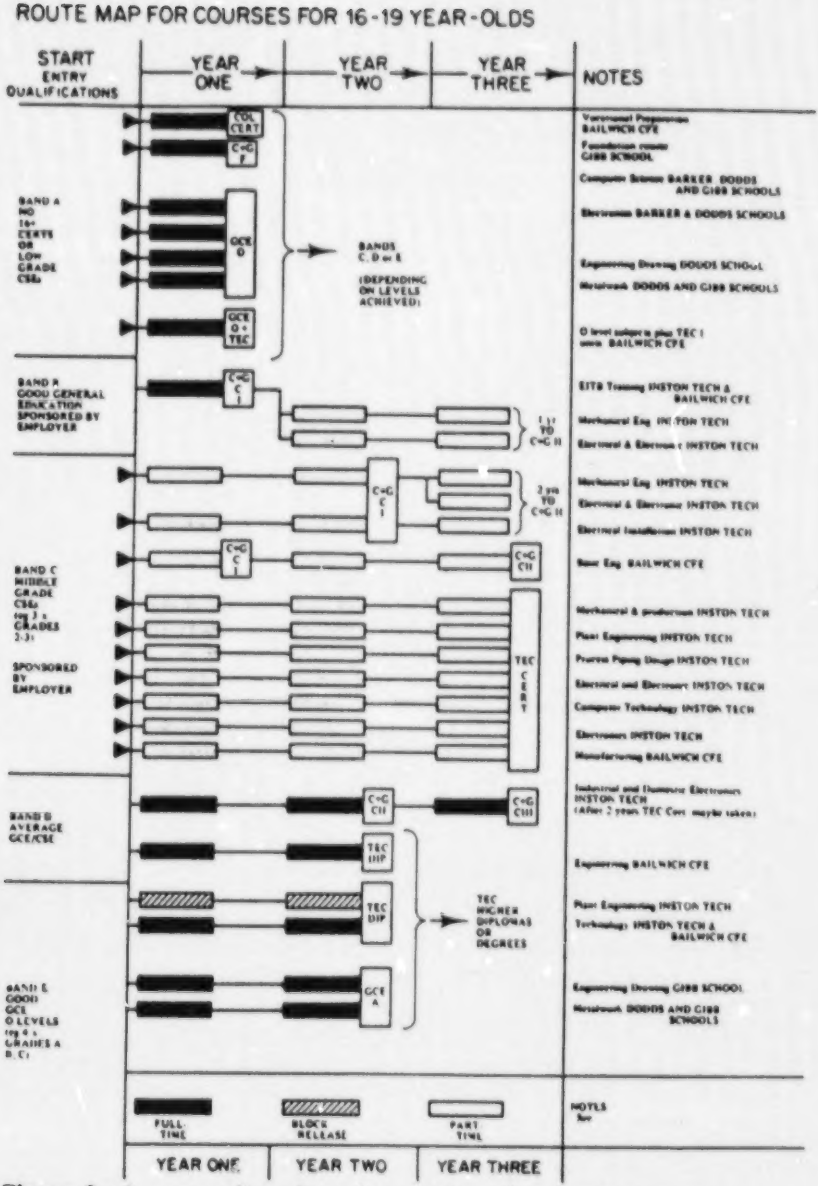

Figure 2 A metropolitan district's provision of engineering courses in sixth-forms and colleges of FE.

Since a large number of the bodies operate in the commercial field, B/TEC has had a particularly tough bargaining job to do in the question of equivalences. There is a good list of these organisations in an appendix to the 1982 Schools Council Pamphlet 20, *Mapping and Reviewing the Pattern of 16-19 Education*. Among the more than 50 bodies listed there are the British Institute of Embalmers, the Institute of Solid Wastes Management, and the Institute of Packaging, which gives an indication of the breadth of coverage they provide.

61 **Industry-Based Training and Further Education – the Development of Policy** Until 1964, training in the UK was largely the responsibility of employers, and the subject of agreements with the trade unions, which freed workers for job-related training in the workplace, or in technical colleges. Some skill training was provided by the then Ministry of Labour, but there was no statutory system to direct national interests. The apprenticeship system attracted the greatest investment, but was almost exclusively directed at boys, except in hairdressing.

62 Concern about the economic growth rate in the UK led through the fifties to a more serious consideration of a legislative basis for training arrangements. An Industrial Training Council was established to encourage the provision of training and the raising of standards, and some local authorities set up working parties on the integration of education and training. The 1962 White Paper on industrial training was followed in 1964 by the Industrial Training Act, but in the meantime, some integrated schemes had already appeared, with colleges and industry co-operating much more closely. The Act aimed to plan training activity linked to the needs of the economy and developments in technology; to improve the quality of industrial training and establish minimum standards, and to devise ways of fairly spreading the cost of training among employers.

63 The Act established Industrial Training Boards, to secure the provision of training in each industrial sector. By 1969, there were 27 statutory Boards, and a number of other non-statutory bodies. The Boards' power lay in their imposition of a levy on employers, returnable in the form of grants to those who trained satisfactorily. The work of the ITBs was guided by the Central Training Council, which advised the Minister on the exercise of his functions under the 1964 Act.

64 At this point, training was administered separately from education, although there were cross-links; the ITBs' main objective was to influence employers to provide training, rather than themselves providing it; there was an absence of direct state intervention, and the organisational structure was industry based rather than geographical.

65 It is worth looking at some of the more obvious differences between education and training as they began to emerge in the 60s. Most obvious was that education was the province of the DES, and training of the Department of Employment. Education would take place in an educational institution, as might training, but training could take place in the factory or other place of work, or in a training centre run by a company or ITB. The purposes of further education are spelled out in a CTC memorandum of 1966: to provide a knowledge and appreciation of techniques; to give a broad understanding of science and technology relevant to the work; to widen the trainee's understanding of society and help his personal development; and to prepare for advancement to a higher level of study. The role of the curriculum designers was to find a sufficiently common base to accommodate trainees from a wide range of employers – it was not seen as the role of FE to give a specific preparation for work in a particular place. This is the role of the training process. Many employers acknowledge the importance of a sound educational base in increasing the effectiveness of specific training.

66 In training, the trainee will develop expertise in a particular task or range of tasks. The skills learned are on the whole specific, and not necessarily transferable. The curriculum design, or training model, is a vertical one, leading from a detailed analysis of a particular job, to training modules leading to expertise in the skills of that job.

The task of integrating these two processes became the task of ITB or company training officers, where there were any, or educational members on the ITBs, and one of the effects of the 1964 Act on FE was the marked increase of co-operation between colleges and employers. There were not, unfortunately, large increases in the numbers of young people involved, in fact the numbers of those released from work to FE have remained remarkably stable at around 20% of the employed age group. Some of the ITBs, notably the Engineering Industry Training Board, organised some radical revisions of the training and education process. It was proposed to conduct first year training off the job, to develop operator training to a greater degree, and to set up courses for training officers. Craft training was organised in modules, with a wide range of skills on offer, mainly taught by employers, and therefore removed from colleges. Most significantly, there was an attempt to replace the idea of a time-serving apprenticeship with skills acquisition. The Certificate of Craftsmanship was awarded as a result of reaching set standards, not of being in the job for a specific number of years, and the opportunity was therefore provided to shorten the term of apprenticeship.

67 The EITB set up its own training centres, primarily for the first year off the job training, and gave funds for the extension of some colleges and company training centres. The scheme demanded that colleges mounting these programmes cope with students attending for 48 weeks in the year, and the City and Guilds produced its 200/500 series Craft Studies Course, which complemented the first year off the job training.

68 Because the responsibility for education and training at the post-school level became the province of the ITBs, provision was largely determined by industry's needs, with the funding made available through industry, and in general, until youth unemployment became a massive problem, funds were not available for those of less-than-average ability.

69 **The Employment and Training Act** In spite of the responsibilities taken by the Central Training Council and the ITBs, there were still major doubts as to whether the country was training its manpower to its maximum possible future benefit. The CTC was reviewed in 1970, as was the Industrial Training Act itself. It was at this time that Enoch Powell uttered one of his more quotable quotes in an attack on the levy grant system – 'the great training robbery'. Certainly the system was causing resentment in some sections of industry. In February 1972, a Government Green Paper was issued, *Training for the Future – A Plan for Discussion*, which outlined proposals for training to meet the needs of individuals, to be met by vocational training through an expansion of the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS); training to meet the needs of industry, which suggested that the levy-grant system should be phased out; and the formation of a National Training Agency to run the TOPS scheme, co-ordinate the work of the ITBs and meet the costs of their programmes, and operate in industries not covered by the training boards. The debate which followed the Green Paper identified some of the shortcomings of the ITBs; they could not possibly cover all the fields of employment; they did not cater for the transfer of labour from one industry to another; they could not really help small firms, which are a valuable source of new employment; and there were many overlaps between their operations, as for instance in the clerical field.

70 The Employment and Training Act of 1973 attempted to deal with some of these problems, and again FE felt its effects in no small way, largely because the national training agency which the Green Paper recommended was in fact established as the Manpower Services Commission, a body whose influence on FE has continued to be dramatic. The Commission itself is a group of ten people who are given responsibilities in employment and training. Some provisions of the Employment and Training Act were that the MSC took over some of the Secretary of State's functions relating to the ITBs; that

every educational authority was to provide a vocational guidance and job placement service to all educational institutions except universities, which made the careers service available to FE for the first time; and that training provisions were to be linked to manpower forecasting in a five-year rolling programme, financed by an annual Treasury grant. It was responsible for planning, developing and operating public employment services, except the careers service; for promoting training in industry, via its industry division; for retraining, via its TOPS division; and for the formulation of training policies, through its Training Directorate.

71 In the latter part of the 70s and 80s, against a worsening economic situation, the main priorities for national training policy have been to help prevent skill shortages, to maintain opportunities for young people to enter skills training (for instance by 'counter-cyclical' training grants for apprentices), to move towards more comprehensive vocational preparation for all young people, particularly the less qualified, and to increase training opportunities for adults.

72 In policy matters, the MSC has moved progressively to centre stage. First, it handled the funding of the ITBs, then a number of ITBs were abolished, so that there are now only non-statutory arrangements which apply to 16 employment sectors. MSC reviews, consultative documents, and training-focused White Papers have followed hard on each others' heels. In 1980, there was a complete review of the 1973 Act. In May 1981, the consultative paper on the '*New Training Initiative*' was published, seeking views on the three objectives of developing skill training through the restructuring of apprenticeship; a better preparation for adult and working life for all young people; the provision of wider opportunities for adults. The consultation paper was followed in December 1981 by the MSC's *Agenda for Action* and the Government White Paper, *A New Training Initiative: A Programme for Action*. This announced the Youth Training Scheme, to start in 1983, for both employed and unemployed young people; the development of an 'Open Tech' programme, to improve access to technical training; the setting of skill standards for the main craft, technician and professional work areas; better incentives to employers to train; a development fund for particular schemes; a review of the costs and mechanisms of training; and most significantly of all for the futher education sector, an examination of vocational preparation in full-time education pre- and post-16.

73 The impact of NTI on youth training is fully described in the next chapter. In policy terms, the New Training Initiative proposals were concentrated first on objective two (YTS), and by association, objective one (apprenticeship). Objective three has been taken up more slowly, under the political pressure to respond to Youth

Unemployment, but the response to objective three (adult training) is largely to be found in the January 1984 White Paper, *Training for Jobs*. This summarises progress on the strategy MSC has adopted for training, especially linking training again to economic need and areas of persistent skills shortage. MSC's adult strategy is not immediately relevant to the scope of this review, but the impact of *Training for Jobs* on the FE sector has been considerable, with the proposal that MSC should take over 25% of the funding of non-advanced further education.

74 For many years, the split of responsibility for education and training between two Government departments has been widely criticised, and the financial proposal in *Training for Jobs* makes the prospect of a merger appear closer. In effect, the MSC has been putting money into further education for a long time, by buying training provision under TOPS and YOP programmes, and latterly through YTS.

The fact that people working for the MSC have their roots in the Department of Employment rather than in education has constantly pushed the Education versus Training debate into prominence and although a resolution of the areas of potential conflict would seem to lie in the new emphasis being given to the unity of vocational preparation, there are recent signs that a resolution may be achieved by the application of cash rather than philosophy. Resources talk.

75 In 1972 the late Sir Peter Venables expressed the great divide between education and training as follows:

'I have an education, he has training (she more or rather less)
I have a degree or diploma, he has a certificate;
One is a professional, the other merely vocational;
I am a teacher, he is an instructor;
We have a syllabus, they have a programme;
Ours is a preparation for life, theirs is a rescue operation;
I attend college, they a training centre.

We have come closer since then, and the edges have become less distinct, but there are still some embarrassing differences. The distinction between education and training seems to a degree to be embedded in entrenched social attitudes. P J C Perry, in *The Evolution of British Manpower Policy*, traces it back to the prosperous times of the 19th century, when the educated found social fulfilment in the service of the state, the church, and the professions, and not in industry and commerce. The absence of any Government intervention in training before 1964 is traced to the same roots.

76 On the other hand, he suggests that increasing control from the centre introduced two elements which tended to move against

flexibility. One was an increasing insistence on fixed routes of progression through the system, with each stage marked by the acquisition of paper qualifications. An extension of this was that these routes favour those who are capable of academic progression; there is more financial support available to those at the top end of the ability range than there is for those going straight from school to work, and there are fewer facilities for those prepared to go it alone through the evening class route.

77 Recent developments have tended to compensate for both these trends. The application of MSC resources to the problem is beginning to tackle the questions of progression. At the time of writing, a review group has been established to look at the structure of vocational qualifications such as have been described in this Chapter. The whole question of access and delivery is being thrown open by developments such as 'Open Tech' and the increasing willingness of the system to recognise experience as well as qualifications as the key to progression. Funding for the individual to study is still seen as primarily a personal or employer responsibility, rather than a Governmental one, although modest grant aid is being offered through the Adult Training Strategy arrangements. Certainly the effect of youth unemployment has been to attract more financing to the education and training of the least able and most disadvantaged than has ever previously been provided.

78 It may be seen as a digression to include this account of what is basically employment legislation in a review of FE curricula, but it is important to realise that it is not on the whole educational legislation which has affected FE in recent years, but employment measures. In some areas, the recent influence of the MSC is much greater than that of the DES. To produce a review of the arrangements for further education in employment within a limited space presents one with difficult choices, as the field is so vast. It is clearly not possible to outline all the variants available for every industry. What has been included is intended to exemplify some of the issues and the course structures involved, and it is to be hoped that practitioners in particular areas will not be offended to find themselves omitted.

CHAPTER FOUR

Vocational Preparation

79 Vocational Preparation is the area of FE which has developed most dramatically since the publication of the first edition of this review. It is largely because of the energy of the FEU in the curriculum field, and of the MSC in the organisational and political arena, that this sector of FE provision has achieved prominence, if not cohesion. It is remarkable that the first edition of *Signposts*, written only five years ago, barely mentions either organisation in this context. FEU had hardly got started, and MSC, in the context of 16–19, was all about unemployment measures.

80 **Full-time vocational preparation courses** One of the first tasks the FEU undertook was to study the range of pre-employment courses available at 16+. The report of this review group, published in 1979, was entitled *A Basis for Choice* (the Mansell report), and it made recommendations which were intended to unify the disparate selection of pre-employment courses then available. Although this is currently the most rapidly changing area of FE, and one for which powerful new proposals are developing, it is worth rehearsing here what these courses are, and how they developed.

81 Ten years ago, relatively non-academic 16–18 year olds in search of a full-time course were new arrivals on the doorstep of colleges. They were likely to have left school with a mixed bag of qualifications, probably some middle-range CSEs, and maybe the odd 'O' level pass. They were probably aware that they were in need of some further personal and educational development before starting work, but were reluctant to stay on at school, which could at that time probably only offer a repeat of the single subject courses they had followed up to the age of 16. They usually wanted to work, fairly soon, and often had a rough idea of the area of work they wanted, although their aspirations were frequently highly unrealistic. Sometimes they were under pressure from home to attend college, since the name suggests a certain status, and initially they often presented themselves for 'O' levels, secretarial or engineering courses, the areas with which they were most familiar. Since entrance tests for these standard college courses usually resulted in failure, and since colleges were reluctant to turn away prospective students, a number of general education courses with a vocational bias were developed to respond to this new demand. In schools, there was a comparable growth in demand for one-year courses in sixth forms, for non-'A' level pupils.

82 The major examining bodies were responsive to this demand, although many of the courses were entirely college devised. At college level, the starting point for the design of the curriculum was the institution's particular range of expertise and facilities. Sadly, because the growth of full-time work went hand in hand with the decline of part-time work, the starting point was sometimes a college's spare capacity, which did not always bode well for the students' chances of eventually finding work in that geographical area. The course designs were generally based on a set of assumptions about student needs. These were usually that the student was likely to need help in the following areas:

(i) General education, particularly language and numeracy.
(ii) Job-finding skills, and self-presentation.
(iii) Particular knowledge and abilities relating to one (or more) areas of employment.
(iv) Personal development (often expressed by students as an unpreparedness for work, or the need to grow up a bit more).

83 A parallel set of developments was taking place in the school sector, where a sequel to the Certificate of Secondary Education had been developed. This was the Certificate of Extended Education, similar in concept to the CSE, in that it is largely controlled by teachers, and it was run on a pilot basis by the Regional Examining Boards, but designed to be taken at 17+. CEE was proposed as a suitable examination course for the new one year sixth formers. It was suggested that five subjects would provide a useful range, and the results would be graded so that success ranged from something like the equivalent of CSE Grade 1, to a pass which was of good quality, but which it was not attempted to relate to 'A' level.

84 The Committee investigating provision for the CEE target group, chaired by Professor Keohane, reported late in 1979. It suggested that CEE should receive official approval, but in a different form from that originally proposed. The report suggests that a smaller number might find the examination more appropriate than was envisaged, and since these are mainly 17+ students who will go straight into employment, there is a strong plea for some vocational relevance, including vocational options and proficiency tests in English and Mathematics. It was not suggested that every CEE candidate should be required to do a vocational course, but the report says that schools should consider combining single subject exams with vocational preparation, social skills, and careers education. These recommendations would certainly bring the CEE nearer to some of the alternatives available, largely in further education.

85 In an attempt to co-ordinate curriculum development efforts, the Keohane report said, 'The Schools Council and FEU should act jointly to bring closer together the structures and content of CEE and further education courses, and to investigate flexible approaches to certification which would allow national validation of a variety of course elements'. The Government's eventual response to CEE is referred to later in this chapter.

86 The needs listed above could quite well be fulfilled by staying on at school for an extra year, provided that the schools were offering appropriate sixth form courses. The young people who choose the college route sometimes do so because they value the industrial and commercial experience of the staff there and because they suppose college to have a more 'adult' atmosphere. It often seems to be a matter of chance whether a 16 year old is at a school which can offer such a course, or lives near enough to a college which does. Sometimes there is a choice, but there are still areas where a student would have to travel long distances to be appropriately accommodated. However, the majority of colleges, and many schools, have now recognised the need for courses which in some way fulfil the needs listed above, and a variety of responses to these needs has been tried out. Several of the schemes have grown out of the work of examining bodies already well established in the fields of technical and commercial examinations; others are college based and designed, and carry no particular paper qualifications; others are what have come to be known as 'mixed-economy' courses, which combine the study for qualifications such as 'O' level with general vocational preparation. Many of the courses include some work experience, where the students are placed in firms for a period of time each week, and their experiences monitored in order to make this into a worthwhile educational experience.

87 Because so much of the curriculum planning on these courses has been college-based, they tend to be an amalgam of features from other courses, and other teaching experiences. For instance, when linked courses with schools were first established in practical subjects, what the school students were offered was often a watered down version of a first year City and Guilds craft course and this practice was carried over into pre-vocational work for school leavers. Selections were made from existing syllabuses, and the practical aspects of the course became a collection of these selections.

88 Because many of the students were below the standard of the usual craft student, and because their work aspirations were less clear, some much more creative course design work was called for. Analytical work was done on the basic skills required for working life, and a rather broad-based 'taster' approach to job-specific skills became focused on the development of skill in a particular area only when a

student started to show signs of having made an appropriate career choice. We saw in the last chapter that the Industrial Training Act went a long way towards removing skills training from the colleges; pre-vocational courses began to reintroduce it.

89 From about 1980, the MSC began to contribute to the curriculum thinking in this sector of work, commissioning studies of the skills young people actually used in jobs. Most of the developments described below pre-date the work of the MSC, which at that time was mainly concerned with the creation of opportunities for young people who had actually become unemployed.

90 The inclusion of work experience is another feature borrowed from employment courses. On-the-job experience has been seen to have great value, both in the development of skills and attitudes, and the full-time student on work experience is getting a similar element to his employed colleague on day release. Work experience employers often contribute a great deal to the students' learning.

91 The existing pre-vocational courses then, are frequently a mixture of successful past experience from their teachers; a mixture of single subjects, integrated by underlying themes; a mixture of school-type studies, with vocational education included. They are sometimes examined, sometimes internally assessed. They lead on to further study or to work which may or may not have specifically featured in the course. Courses which feature particular work areas are generally the ones for which external validation was initially available.

92 **Certificate of Further Education** The regional examining bodies, providers of examinations in craft and technical subjects, entered the area of pre-employment education, using their experience of local work areas, and all their previous teacher/employer contacts. The Certificate of Further Education, as these courses are known, are courses of general education with a bias towards certain trades or groups of trades.

93 Pilot schemes for the CFE were first offered in 1974, at about the same time as the pilot CEE was being developed for schools. The various schemes are very different from each other, but have the more or less common theme of preparing young school leavers for a range of future occupations or more specialised courses, through a combination of general education and pre-vocational preparation. In addition to a common core of subjects covering numeracy, communication and recreation, there are about 30 different modules on offer in the area of work preparation, of which at least two must be completed. There are, for instance, schemes for engineering/-construction, and pre-nursing, which will gain a student some credit for entry to courses subsequently offered by CGLI or B/TEC.

94 The schemes did not grow very quickly, since a regional scheme has by definition a smaller market, and they attracted about the same number of students in total as the similar venture run by the City and Guilds, operated on a national basis, and made available to schools, and (later) pre-16. The REBs were forbidden by their statutes to operate in either of the two latter arenas.

In 1980 the CGLI and the regions drew up an agreement referred to as the 'Ferryside', which brought their award systems closer together by a process of joint certification.

95 **City and Guilds Foundation Courses** The City and Guilds of London Institute, long a provider of an impressive range of examinations in the technical field, also stepped into the pre-employment arena in 1974, with a feasibility study aimed at outlining the needs of the 16+ age group. In 1975/76, pilot studies of the courses began, and the CGLI 'Foundation Courses' were made available to schools and colleges for 1976/77.

96 There is a range of Foundation Courses, each focused on a particular group of related industries, which continue General Education for one year in the context of a study of these industries. They aim to prepare students to make an informed choice of either employment or specialised vocational further education. As they stand, the Foundation Courses provide a framework for work preparation in specified industries; individual institutions are free to submit schemes following a similar pattern, an important feature which leads to considerable variations among these courses. The Foundation Courses are equally appropriate for school or college students, provided that the facilities for practical work are available. In 1983/84 there were over 19,000 candidates for Foundation course schemes, and another 4,000 on Vocational Preparation (General) which is described later (see Appendix 2). A substantial proportion of these were students on joint schemes run co-operatively between colleges and schools, where the often better equipped colleges were providing the bulk of the vocational studies and skills required on the course. This kind of co-operative venture would seem to be one answer to the charges of wasteful duplication of effort between schools and FE, although overall, this type of course is not catering for very large numbers as a proportion of the total provision.

97 **The Royal Society of Arts Basic Level Schemes** The Royal Society of Arts, another venerable institution in the examining world, concentrating largely on the commercial and business area, also began to make a path into this general pre-employment area with courses aimed at broadly similar ability groups. The Certificate of Vocational Preparation (Clerical) and the Certificate in Basic Clerical Procedures were first to appear, offered nationally in 1977. The latter supposes a

firmer commitment to the idea of work in commerce than the former, but both lay heavy emphasis on the idea of a general preparation for employment. Added later were variants based on work in distribution and basic receptionist/telephonist skills.

98 **Testing and Validation** Between them, these schemes have emerged with some creative innovations in the area of testing and validation. The City and Guilds, relying on its previous work in multiple choice tests, has included these alongside course work in its assessment schemes, but colleges are free to devise their own methods of assessment if they choose. The RSA is relying more heavily on continuous assessment of course work, with an interesting profile certificate at the end of the Vocational Preparation course, setting out those areas where each individual student has achieved a satisfactory standard. The Basic Clerical Procedure course does have a final examination but it takes the form of an in-tray exercise, with set tasks of a practical nature to be performed. The RSA has built on its early experience of profile production to offer Practical Profiles which are independent of particular course structures.

99 **Course Design** Creativity in course design has not, however, been confined to these examining bodies. Many colleges are running courses of their own design, built to meet the needs of the particular groups of students presenting themselves. Some of these are a mixture of 'O' level, CEE, or CSE subjects, or even single subjects of the RSA or City and Guilds, with additional time given to practical subjects, careers education, recreational subjects and work experience. Some, however, have entirely college designed curricula, perhaps with a college certificate, but not always, and with employment as a firm aim. They can be found under names like 'What Next', 'Which Job', 'Gateway', etc., although some of these titles can be rather confusing. The title 'Gateway', for instance, is applied to courses for handicapped students, low achievers, women returning to work, and even some preparatory courses for study with the Open University. Under these circumstances, the labels on the tins become less important than the list of contents and nutritional breakdown. The courses are likely to last for a year, but since the majority are aimed at employment, it is generally seen as a sign of success to have an empty classroom in the summer term.

100 **'ABC' begins to change the map** *A Basis for Choice*, the FEU report with a reference to which this chapter began, contained proposals for a common curriculum core for pre-employment courses, in an attempt to test the degree to which their focus was common. Subsequent to the publication of the report, the FEU set up a pilot study to check the feasibility of establishing both a common curriculum, and a profile system of recording student achievement. The battle for influence with the examining bodies had begun.

101 The basic structure recommended in *A Basis for Choice* was a year long full-time course. It consisted of a common core expressed as twelve broad aims (see Appendix 3) which reflected the qualities and skills required to meet different personal, social and vocational needs. This was to represent around 60% of the work done, although it was suggested that wherever possible these core aims should be achieved through vocational studies, which represented the remaining 40% Some of this vocational study should be in the form of job-specific study or experience.

102 At the end of the report, the suggestion was made that a profile recording system might be established, validated by the further education examining bodies. 'ABC' was not a suggestion for a new course, but a framework against which other courses could be matched. This matching process was the focus of the feasibility study conducted by the FEU in 1980, and the City and Guilds of London Institute participated in this exercise to examine the possibility of setting up the profiling system.

103 The feasibility study reported a strong degree of agreement between the aims of 'ABC' and the courses with which it was matched. In curriculum terms, the stage was set for a move which could unite the various courses into a single award, but in political terms the ground was by no means ready.

104 In October 1980, as the feasibility study was getting under way, the Department of Education and Science produced a policy document entitled *Examinations 16-18: A Consultative Paper*. It declared that the Government intended to establish a single pre-vocational award along the lines of *A Basis for Choice*, and was not in favour of the further development of CEE, whose single subject basis was not sufficiently adaptable to vocational preparation. The Government hoped that the new award would be developed by one of the further education examining bodies, and did not intend to involve the GCE boards. The fight was on.*

105 Apart from the 'Ferryside' agreement, which created a degree of sometimes rather reluctant co-operation between the CGLI and the REB's, it was obvious that the various FE bodies (all of them commercial organisations) would not willingly pool their resources or share the market. The CGLI in fact established an additional pre-vocational course, the Vocational Preparation (General) award, number 365, which was developed along the lines suggested by *A Basis for Choice* except that it required students to study at least three

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* *'Exams 16-18' also proposed the establishment of an I (Intermedidte) level GCE to broaden 'A' level study, but that and the subsequent proposal for AS (Advanced Supplementary) levels, is properly part of the map in Chapter 2.*

different vocational areas throughout the course. This made it significantly different from 'ABC', which had suggested 'tasters' during an initial induction phase, with more focused study on a particular work area once an informed choice was made. The 365 course also carried a profile certificate similar to the one which had been developed with FEU. It is indisputable that CGLI had stepped into a ready marketplace. In 1984, the 365 course had 4,203 entries for final certification. The course had slipped pre-16, like the Foundation courses, and it was also being commonly used within the Youth Training Scheme.

106 In its May 1982 Policy Statement, *17+, A New Qualification*, the Government concluded that existing qualifications did not fully meet the needs of the increasing numbers of 16 year olds who wanted to continue full-time education. It proposed a new framework of provision leading to a new system of certification for pre-vocational education. This framework would be designed to improve the vocational relevance of courses in schools and colleges, and also to rationalise the pattern of courses described above. It was hoped to make this new provision compatible with developments for the Youth Training Scheme, as well as the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, a 14-18 programme being developed with MSC money, which will be discussed in the final chapter. Proposals were also made in the document for the machinery to administer the qualification.

107 It took until 1983, with a substantial pump-priming grant, and a huge amount of political manoeuvring before the body charged with developing the new 17+ award was established. The Joint Board for Pre-Vocational Education was to be a combined venture for B/TEC and the CGLI, staffed by their officers. The Board itself, after much lobbying, contained representation from the Royal Society of Arts and the GCE boards, as well as several industrial members.

108 Its objective was to design and implement a new national award, the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE), in the process absorbing the CGLI's Foundation and Vocational Preparation (General) awards; the CFEs associated with the latter; the RSA's Vocational Preparation awards, and the B/TEC General Diploma.

109 Piloting of the new curriculum framework began in September 1984, preparatory to a full implementation in September 1985. A new vocabulary is creeping onto the map. 'Framework' is a current concept to bypass the idea of a course. CPVE is not a course, any more than *A Basis for Choice* was a course. The curriculum framework is a structure into which a variety of course designs can be fitted. Indeed, the concept of a course is now changing in FE, from a group of students studying together with a particular curriculum pattern, to the more fluid arrangement of an individual student programme.

110 **Framework, Core, Categories and Clusters** The CPVE is an award offered for a wide variety of student attainment in a large number of courses of study or individual programmes set against a common curriculum *framework*. That framework consists firstly of a common *core* of skills and knowledge which can be applied in a variety of situations (see Appendix 3), and which, it is asserted, are essential for progression into all forms of employment or further education. All ten core areas must be part of a course of study. The second feature of the framework is vocational study, which provides the focus for the development of the abilities identified in the common core. Here again there are new terms: the vocational studies are organised in five main *categories*, that is, Business and Administrative Services, Technical Services, Production, Distribution and Services to People. Each category is divided into a number of *clusters* based on groups of roles found in occupational activities.

111 The third feature is 'additional studies', which are designed to allow students to follow personally relevant programmes outside the main course structure. This does not exclude additional qualifications.

112 The proportion of these features on the whole is that additional studies will occupy 25% of the time; core and vocational study the remaining 75% Of this 75%, vocational studies should occupy 25%, and be integrated with the core studies for 20% of the course time. The similarity with the earlier structure proposed in *A Basis for Choice* will be apparent. All schemes must include 15 days work experience, appropriate guidance systems for participating students, and an assessment system based on a continuous collection of statements about a student's competence.

113 This review is being compiled in the middle of the pilot year; it is intended that the certification involved in the CPVE will provide the basis of progression into more advanced and vocationally specific programmes offered by bodies such as B/TEC. At the time of writing, however, the future of the CPVE is being jeopardised by the struggle of examining bodies to maintain their share of the market. The RSA intends to continue providing its Vocational Preparation courses; B/TEC have announced a new vocational business qualification to 'bridge' the gap for older students into B/TEC National, and there is a CPVE pilot based on the Certificate of Extended Education, which the CSE boards are trying to preserve beyond its stated death-date.

114 The development of CPVE marks the culmination of a powerful movement in curriculum development which has had far reaching effects. It has established features in the landscape which were only sketchily present on the map of 1980. Before proceeding with the review of the parallel part-time provision, it is necessary to refer to these features.

115 As was suggested in para 82, there was initially broad agreement about some of the main features of vocational preparation courses. These features were refined and developed substantially because of the work of the FEU in reviewing and disseminating good practice, starting with its 1981 publication *Vocational Preparation*.

116 This identified four main elements of this provision, namely the identification of a core of *basic skills* necessary for successful transition to adult and working life; a teaching approach based on *experience* (sometimes known as the experiential approach and frequently transcribed by typists and printers as the experimental approach); a *counselling and guidance* system which also forms the basis of *assessment*, in that the focus of assessment shifts to guided self-assessment of the student's own progress, and emerging from this, and most difficult of all, the concept of *negotiation*, which attempts to reach agreement with the student about the shape his or her curriculum should take.

These features have permeated vocational provision in all its forms to some degree, and can also be identified in much 'mainstream' vocational provision. They have also been included in MSC's thinking on the Youth Training Scheme.

117 **Part-time vocational preparation provision** In the previous edition of this review, part-time vocational preparation occurred either in the form of Unified Vocational Preparation (UVP), or in courses for the unemployed under the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP). YOP was wholly funded by the MSC, and UVP was a joint MSC/DES programme to increase the amount of training for young people in unskilled jobs, for whom little training had traditionally been provided.

118 **A New Training Initiative** In the summer of 1983, both these jungle paths were merged in a new super-highway, the Youth Training Scheme. December 1981 had seen the publication of the Government White Paper, *A New Training Initiative: A Programme for Action*, already referred to in Chapter 3. Together with the MSC's own publication *A New Training Initiative: An Agenda for Action*, it outlined three major national objectives for the future of industrial training, of which the first two relate to the training of young people. A period of consultation had followed the MSC's discussion document *A New Training Initiative* in May 1981, and both the December papers contained the same three objectives as the basis for future progress.

119 The first objective was to develop skill training, increasing the number of apprenticeship-type places and at the same time restructuring skill training arrangements to base them on training to specified standards rather than periods of time. The major effect of this objective would be on the arrangements described in Chapter 3.

120 The second objective concerned the provision of the opportunity for all young people under 18 to continue either in full-time education or in a programme of planned training together with work experience. The third objective was to increase training opportunities for adults, but this is outside the immediate scope of this review. YTS is mainly related to objective two.

121 One billion pounds was to be put into the new Youth Training Scheme, guaranteeing a year of foundation training to those who left school at the minimum age without jobs to go to. The immediate difference between YTS and YOP was therefore that YTS was for twelve months, not six, and it contained specific requirements for off-the-job training to take place. Proposals quickly followed on the extension of YTS to include employed as well as unemployed young people, by subsidising the training costs incurred by employers who had established training schemes for their young employees. To a degree, this replaced some of the incentive grants which had been available through the now dismantled Industrial Training Boards, but for many it was a useful contribution.

122 The ten point action plan in the White Paper also predicted the change towards preparation for working life in secondary education, later to be delivered by TVEI; an increase in opportunities for vocational courses in full-time post-16 education, developed further in the 1984 White Paper which proposed a shift to MSC of 25% of the costs of providing non-advanced further education; and the closer co-ordination of training and vocational education provision. We saw in the discussion on CPVE how tricky the last item is proving to be, but in April 1985 a joint MSC/DES working group was established with the objective of reviewing the structure of vocational qualifications.

123 YTS was implemented with considerable speed, along the lines described in the White Paper. 300,000 places were available by 1983; the undertaking was substantially meant to offer a place to all unemployed school leavers by Christmas 1983, and individual training schemes were designed and established, using employers and 'managing agents', a new breed whose role was to run YTS on behalf of the MSC.

124 **Content of YTS** The aims of YTS were to equip young people to adapt to the demands of employment, to have a fuller appreciation of the world of industry and business, and to develop basic and recognised skills which employers would require. Properly designed schemes of off-the-job training or further education would take into account both the demands of local labour markets and the individual needs of trainees.

125 There were to be five main elements to the scheme:

Induction and assessment, in which the skills and aspirations of trainees would be assessed to ensure their participation in the most appropriate scheme.

Basic skills, which were later described as communications, numeracy, practical skills, computer literacy, and social and personal development. This selection is not dissimilar to the 'ABC' core (see Appendix 3).

Education and training *relevant to an occupation*, both on and off-the-job.

Guidance and counselling designed to give support and advice throughout the scheme (another feature common to all forms of vocational preparation).

Record and review of progress. An assessment system which was closely linked to the counselling activity (as in FEU's *Vocational Preparation*) fell short of establishing a profile report, but suggested trainee log books or diaries, from which entries witnessed by supervisors could be transferred to a final YTS certificate containing details of the scheme, and statements about what the trainees could actually do.

126 The organisation of YTS was, as previously stated, in the hands of managing agents. These could either be existing employers, or organisations set up specifically for the purpose. If based with an employer (Mode A), trainees would not be allowed quite so much off-the-job training as they received in some local authority or college-based schemes (Mode B). The latter, including some community schemes, were intended either for hard-to-place young people with special needs, or for training in highly specialist fields such as information technology, where it was not easy to find employer based training places.

127 Some employers included their existing trainees and apprentices in the system, and in some industries, such as motor vehicle repair and electrical contracting, YTS has largely supplanted the first year of apprenticeship. Some employers supplemented the training allowance paid to the trainees by MSC up to the level of previously agreed wage rates, but the majority stayed on the basic rate. The financial payments to trainees are a major feature distinguishing YTS from full-time vocational preparation, where the young people are students with no direct allowances payable.

128 In some places, schemes of off-the-job training have included the opportunity to acquire by part-time study similar qualifications to those gained during the full-time courses. It is thus possible, for instance, to obtain a B/TEC General award as a full-time student, as a YTS trainee, or as an employed person on day-release. It is for this reason that the Joint Board was urged to consider making available a

part-time version of the CPVE, to avoid the unnecessary retention of the old qualifications for the benefit of part-time students. There are probably insufficient differences between CPVE and YTS to justify a totally separate range of awards.

129 The occupationally based training was to be provided within one of eleven Occupational Training Families (OTFs) (see Appendix 3), a concept developed by the Institute of Manpower Studies in the course of its work for MSC. In *Foundation Training Issues* (1982) and *Training for Skill Ownership* (1983) the IMS developed some ideas which formed a parallel track with thinking at FEU, and they were woven into the early structure of YTS.

130 An occupational training family is a group of occupations which appears to have a number of key skills and abilities in common, and by categorising them into a relatively small number of groups, it was hoped that YTS would enable young people to make the transfer of training from one occupation into another, because they saw the skill relationship between the two jobs. The full implications and applications of these two rather speculative concepts are still being worked out in YTS, and there is some movement away from the sometimes inconvenient restriction imposed by the OTF divisions.* There is some sympathy for the smaller number of broad groupings found in the CPVE categories.

131 The further debate regarding the curriculum for YTS concerns the degree to which training should eventually be job-specific. Initially, the main aim of YTS was to provide *broad-based* training, and this was widely interpreted as training at only an introductory level, but across the range of activity suggested by the list of basic skills in para 125. In fact, partly because of high youth unemployment, and partly because of the inclusion of employed young people in YTS, a very much wider range of ability was to be found among YTS trainees than among previous YOP trainees. Many were already competent in the basic skills, and were ready for something more demanding. It became possible to include in YTS the opportunity to obtain the part-time further education qualifications provided by B/TEC, CGLI, RSA and the like, as well as the skills certification of EITB modules, for instance. It was not unknown for YTS trainees to add to their existing collection of 'O' and 'A' levels. All this has prompted a rethink of the training base of YTS, and the MSC seems prepared to be convinced that a unified system of certification which provides accreditation for young people's competencies, and allows them to

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* *see FEU publication, Occupational Training Families: their implications for FE. Nov '84.*

progress to other levels, is desirable. Whether this system is CPVE plus further educational qualifications or not, remains to be seen. The MSC has shown a marked reluctance to acknowledge research, development or certification which it has not itself commissioned.

132 YTS has been a success. It has reached many of its targets, and is popular with many employers. A substantial number of the first year's trainees (75–80% overall) went into employment or further education, and it has created some dents in the face of occupational training patterns for young people. The Government has announced the extension of YTS to two years from 1986, but so far the precise shape of this two year scheme is not established. There has been a move to make more of YTS employer-based, with a reduction in the number of Mode B places, and the MSC hopes to get employers progressively to foot a greater share of the bill for young people's training.

133 **Young People with Special Educational Needs** Both full-time college courses and YTS schemes make provision for a group of students who are now acknowledged in law to have equal rights of access to education and training, that is the post-16 student with special needs, and notably the mentally handicapped.

134 Well before the appearance of section 10 of the 1976 Education Act on the statute book, allowing for the integration of pupils from special schools into ordinary schools, and well before the 1978 Warnock report on the education of children with special needs, some FE colleges had set up courses for pupils leaving the special schools. Sometimes they were on a link basis in the final year of schooling, as well as on full-time courses for the period immediately afterwards. All authorities now have to make this provision, as a result of the 1981 Education Act, and this is another example of FE responding to needs expressed by a section of the local community, with the usual rich variety of curriculum designs. Some courses stress social and personal development, and many emphasise the preparation for working life, with work experience arranged in and out of college, and even some workshops modelled on industrial arrangements, with students doing work contracted to them from local firms. There is considerable overlap in curriculum terms between these courses and the general pre-vocational courses for 'normal' students, and apart from the few special courses for severely sub-normal students (ESN(S)), there is often an overlap in the client group. One will often find, for instance, that students from special schools for the moderately educationally subnormal (ESN(M)) and for the delicate and maladjusted, will cope perfectly well alongside students from ordinary comprehensives on straightforward general education courses. As the reputation of the courses already running improves, pressure is building up on colleges to mount them in greater numbers. The staff of special schools understandably feel that their students have an equal right to

continuing FE with those from ordinary schools, and the growth of youth unemployment has meant that the need for a next step after school for the handicapped school leaver has become even more pressing. They are the ones who are likely to experience most difficulty in finding employment.

135 **Special Staffing and Resources** The courses described in this chapter cater for a growing proportion of the students in non-advanced FE, and one whose growth has caused a good deal of heart searching among policy makers in further education. When the first examples of link courses were being set up between schools and colleges, there were many FE staff who were resistant to the idea. They had not become college lecturers (and the title is significant) in order to teach school children; in fact there were those who had gone into colleges in order to get away from them. Similarly, I have had the opportunity to interview potential entrants to the profession, in a college of education, and when asked why they particularly wanted to teach in further education, many of them would reply that they were anxious to teach a subject for which they personally had special enthusiasm, to groups of students who were mature and well motivated. They were often surprised to hear that some of FE is not like that. These two viewpoints are not uncommon, and it would be foolish to deny that even now there are many FE staff who regard the growth of this level of work with some trepidation. It can affect the balance of work in a college; it can certainly affect the balance of the student body; it is a movement towards making colleges more comprehensive. There are arguments for training our future workforce in such a way that the skills they learn will enable them to adapt to future industrial changes, and these arguments are just as true for the students who will do the relatively unskilled jobs, as they are for the technicians, craftsmen, and professionals. There are many changes still to be made in the curriculum and teaching styles of FE, as well as the funding.

136 Careful consideration has to be given to the choice of staffing for such courses. People, rather than subjects, become the major focus (as in 'I don't teach mathematics, I teach students'). These students can be difficult and undermining. The fact that most of them have chosen to come to college does not always make them easier to teach, but there are great rewards for the persevering, in seeing the enormous development of confidence and ability that can take place very quickly in an uncommitted 16 year old who did not do very well at school. Staff need to have chosen to be involved with this work; pressed men do not often survive in this part of the jungle.

137 In the curriculum area, if preparation for work is really to feature honestly in the courses, it is vital that the students should not only have work experience, but also have access to the specialist staff

and workshops which are equipped to teach vocational subjects. Many vocational preparation courses were developed in general studies departments, and the courses are infinitely more successful where there is a happy relationship with specialist technical departments, so that the students have access to the catering kitchens, the vehicle workshops, the fabrication laboratories, the model office. There is always pressure on such accommodation, but these facilities are often the main reason for courses of this kind being run in colleges rather than schools, and access to this kind of special accommodation is most important. A growing number of colleges have set up organisational structures which cut across departmental boundaries, and this makes course planning very much easier. Not for them the ignominy of having to persuade their favourite engineer to let the General Education students into his workshop for half a day a week; he is already a member of the course team.

138 A further feature of FE life that can complicate the growth of this type of work is the system of classifying courses by the level of work, which has implications for staffing. According to the presumed level of difficulty of a course, and consequently the level of expertise needed to teach on it, courses in FE are graded. The general education which has been described here is graded at level 5, the lowest there is, and it therefore follows that under normal circumstances, expansion of work in this area will not financially benefit a department as much as the running of courses at a higher level. Some staff involved know that they have only very limited opportunities for promotion, and while this often means that only the committed (or the unwary) apply, it does give some grounds for dissatisfaction. Some authorities have adopted a policy of positively encouraging work at this level in FE, and have allowed colleges to create special senior lectureships to develop it, together with a generous allowance of lecturer II posts, and other resources. Others have their vocational preparation teachers locked into the lowest grade, and because of the effect of MSC funding, often on temporary contracts.

139 The full scale of the MSC's impact on this sector of the education system is made clear in the two White Papers, *Training for Jobs* (January 1984) and *Education and Training for Young People* (April 1985). The first Paper proposes a substantial shift in funding for non-advanced further education from rate-borne finance to MSC (Treasury) finance. The second rehearses all the areas in which MSC intends to make an impact. The list of projects and special measures to increase the 'vocational' content of education is considerable. Apart from YTS and proposals for a second year YTS, and TVEI and the Scottish programme (to be discussed in the next chapter), the White Paper connects YTS with CPVE, and expresses the intention to take further the existing initiatives in full-time education. It announces the

intention to pump a substantial amount of money into in-service teacher training, both through MSC and by new arrangements between the DES and the local authorities. It announces the review of vocational qualifications already mentioned in the previous chapter, primarily to increase access to further qualifications, and to clarify the system (and possibly render further reviews of this kind unnecessary).

CHAPTER FIVE

Other Necks of the Woods

140 This review has so far described the main tracks of current provision, and traced their origins. There remain a number of other forms of provision and issues to be discussed without which such a review would be incomplete. They are the equivalent of the dotted motorway proposals found on road atlases. One is never sure whether they are actually being built until the next edition emerges.

141 **Part-time study for the unemployed** As the 1985 statistical review from DES demonstrates (see Appendix 1), a large proportion of the 16-18 age group were actually unemployed in 1984, notwithstanding the existence of YTS. The older members of the age group are the ones most likely to be without work or a place on a training scheme, and most colleges are able to accommodate them for some kind of study if they wish. There is a facility within the rules for claiming benefit via the DHSS that allows unemployed people to study for up to 21 hours each week (see *FEU Guidance note number 3*, November 1984), and colleges are enabling this facility to be used in a number of ways. Obviously, unemployed people can take advantage of the various part-time courses of study offered by colleges, but a number of courses have been specifically designed to be contained within 21 hours of study, and meet the needs of older unemployed young people. These are often variations on the vocational preparation theme (cf. *Studying on the Dole*; survey conducted by John Pelican for Youthaid, 1984), but in the past were sometimes provided as alternatives to YOP. It is likely that in the future such arrangements will be made available primarily for those who have been through YTS and are still unable to find employment.

142 **TVEI. The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative**
Aim

(a) The first edition of *Signposts* was intended only to cover 16-19, but as we have already seen, the focus has shifted to 14-18. In September 1983, the MSC began funding a programme of work in schools which it was hoped would encourage a review of the curriculum for 14-18 year olds to produce a coherently planned programme of both general and vocational education. The initiative was in line with the proposals made in the 1981 White Paper, the New Training Initiative.

(b) The programme involved an injection of direct grant funding, via the MSC, into a number of pilot local education authorities,

to build on existing work in pre-vocational education in particular, and the secondary school curriculum in general.

Finance

(c) TVEI is essentially a pilot project. At the end of a guaranteed four year term, it is assumed that LEAs will be expected to maintain the financing of the initiative, although this remains unclear to date. In September 1983, 14 pilot schemes were to be allocated £25 million; in September 1984 a further 59 LEAs were added to the scheme, and another £14 million to the budget. After that, there is a further £20 million for the budget for the next four years, and it is expected that by September 1986 all authorities will be participating except for a few Labour controlled areas which have political objections.

Criteria for the Schemes

(d) To be acceptable to the funding agency (which was actually the Department of Employment), acting via MSC, with an MSC/-DES group of assessors in control, schemes had to satisfy the following criteria, most of which are familiar in the context of the discussion of vocational preparation in Chapter 4:

(i) equal opportunities for both sexes;
(ii) a four year curriculum designed to prepare young people for working and adult life in a rapidly changing society;
(iii) a programme which will encourage initiative, problem solving and other aspects of personal development;
(iv) the continuation of both general and vocational education throughout the programme, from 14-18;
(v) the relationship of the technical and vocational elements to potential employment opportunities;
(vi) planned work experience within the programme (at least from 15+);
(vii) courses should link with subsequent training and educational opportunities;
(viii) there should be provision for regular assessment, including careers counselling.

It is also expected that young people on TVEI will be preparing for one or more nationally recognised qualifications, and that the schemes will include pupils across the whole ability range.

(e) **The examinations tangle** becomes most impenetrable at this point. All the TVEI schemes are different, but they currently all seem to be facing the same problems related to accreditation. Many schools implementing TVEI have fitted the scheme into a modular curriculum arrangement, which gives the pupils options, and enables them to carry on with their single subject courses for the 16 examinations. Their problems over how to

accredit the technical and vocational parts of the curriculum have been readily 'solved' by the further education examining bodies who have offered them ready made or purpose built schemes. A school casting around for a suitable ready made scheme can opt for one of those described in Chapter 4, and CGLI in particular have accommodated TVEI schemes within Foundation awards, and have even taken the age bar away from Vocational Preparation (General) to allow it to be taken pre-16. B/TEC has been slightly more circumspect, and offers to underwrite a 'record of success', based on locally designed programmes. There is also a pilot programme of development relating to business studies for the 14-16 age group, specifically for TVEI. The existing Technician Studies scheme has also been permitted a limited development pre-16.

(f) There is a danger that these developments will undercut CPVE (and also YTS) just at the point when the long awaited single award is getting off the drawing board. September 1985 marks the beginning of the first post-compulsory academic year for the first TVEI entrants, and it will be interesting to see what is offered them. If they stay on at school, it is expected that their technical and vocational programme will continue with them into the 6th form, and it will come under pressure from 'A' level and, in time, from 'A/S' level study. If they go to college, they will expect to be given credit for the work they have already done. It is likely that another pre-vocational course will have little to offer them but repetition, for the simple reason that a course whose vocational aspects are ultimately derived from the early years of job-specific training is not infinitely extendible both up and down the age range. It is unlikely that the pre-vocational structure of CPVE or YTS will survive being pulled down to 14 and up to 18 without falling apart. The examination bodies may offer their traditional set of modules, units, and single subject examinations, but these are mainly designed on the assumption that the student is backing up his examination course with a considerable degree of practical experience at work.

(g) To add to the pressure, only a small proportion (about 3%) of students in the TVEI authorities are being put through the programme (it is a pilot, after all). Colleges will therefore have to admit students with a wide range of pre-vocational credits and cater for them without repeating work already done. It needs a student body considerably larger than the average to operate this kind of negotiated unit/credit programme efficiently.

(h) There is some concern with respect to TVEI that the MSC has been able to exercise curriculum control at the expense of LEAs. With funding so generous to be obtained, it is hardly surprising

that LEAs and schools have been anxious to participate. But with examination success given so high a priority in the education system, the MSC will have to work quickly to exert its influence on the accreditation structures. The developments surrounding CPVE have shown the extent of the influence of the FE examining and validating bodies, and MSC will probably have to work with them, if it can find a way to reconcile the warring factions. A variant of CPVE to be delivered through TVEI and YTS, with clearly negotiated access to higher levels of qualification, would seem to be the answer. An MSC/DES group has been set up to examine the problem.

SCOTLAND

(a) The problems associated with TVEI admirably illustrate the difficulty which central government has in articulating with English and Welsh local education authorities on matters of educational policy. The LEAs have an amount of control over both finance and curriculum which foreign educationalists find baffling, and native ones on the whole guard jealously. The result is the rich variety which is the British education system. In Northern Ireland and Scotland, however, there is a different relationship between the national education office and the LEAs (or their equivalent), which has made change much more rapid. In Northern Ireland, for instance, the Youth Training Programme was fully implemented a whole year before YTS, and in Scotland, a completely new set of structures for vocational and pre-vocational courses appear to have tackled many of the problems currently being faced in England and Wales.

(b) Following a consultation paper in 1979, the Government published its *Action Plan* for Scotland in 1983. With a timetable leading to implementation for September 1984, the Action Plan proposed a new framework consisting of:

(i) new courses based on modules, usually of 40 hours of study, to replace the present array of non-advanced courses;
(ii) a new national 16–18 certificate for students and trainees;
(iii) a range of entry and exit points to serve both education and training patterns;
(iv) better opportunities to change areas of study;
(v) closer links between schools and colleges, and between education and training schemes.

(c) Twenty 40-hour modules will make up a full-time FE course, and about six a day-release course. Pre-vocational courses will be made up of both general education and specific vocational modules, and subsequent courses will be made up to meet

specific vocational needs. Employers are able to specify the combination of modules they need for entry to particular jobs.

(d) There are nine groups of modules, as follows:
   (i) Inter-disciplinary studies (computing, mathematics, communication, industrial studies and general education);
   (ii) Business and Administration;
   (iii) Distribution, Food Services and Personal Services;
   (iv) Engineering;
   (v) Built environment;
   (vi) Caring;
   (vii) Industrial Processing;
   (viii) Land and sea-based industries;
   (ix) Pure and applied sciences.

By August 1984 there were around 650 modules, with more to follow, rewriting all the main non-advanced courses provided by SCOTEC and SCOTBEC in modular form. Eventually, all non-advanced further education courses will become available in modular form. It is possible to combine modules with courses offered by the Scottish Examination Board, which is an option likely to be taken up by school pupils.

(e) The modular structure can accommodate full and part-time students, YTS trainees, and '21-hour' students. Internal assessments for each module will be validated by the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC), a new body formed by amalgamating SCOTEC and SCOTBEC. SCOTVEC may also offer external assessments.

(f) There is a new, SCOTVEC 'National Certificate' which records attainments at the end of a course of study, and which can be added to later. It is to have a currency comparable with existing SCOTEC, SCOTBEC and CGLI certificates. SCOTEC and SCOTBEC had already introduced the Scottish Certificate of Vocational Studies (the Scots' answer to CPVE) in the Autumn of 1983, and the new certificate will absorb that arrangement. Although delayed, an agreement with CGLI is now virtually concluded.

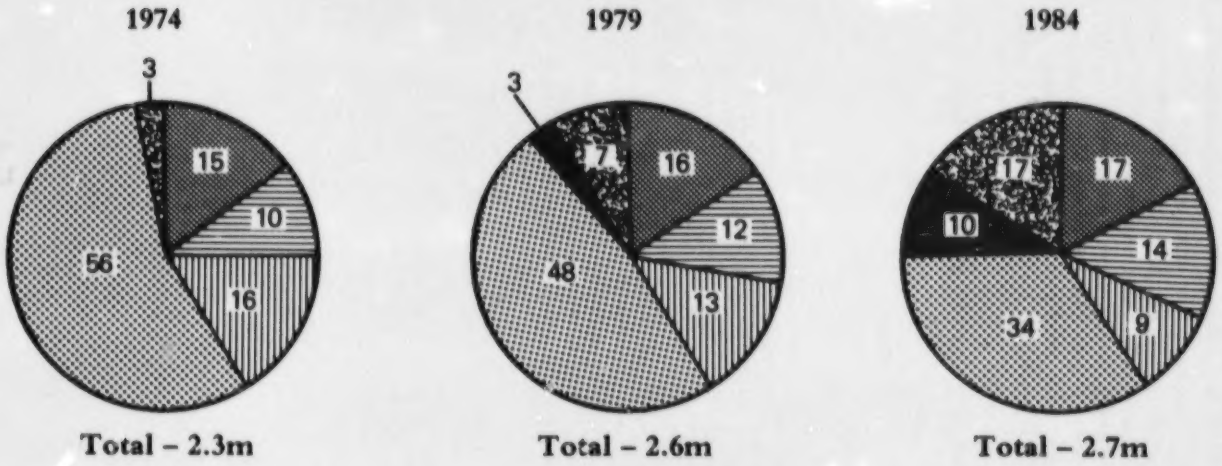
(g) There are new courses at Foundation, General, and Credit levels for 14–16 year olds to follow in secondary schools, to be introduced over a 3 year period, and which will lead into the 16–18 modules.

(h) Firm Government action, extensive consultation, and a very tight timescale appear to have settled the shape of the Scottish map. It is not within the scope of this review to comment on the effects of these changes in Scotland, although colleagues north of the border have shown a certain breathlessness. Like TVEI, the Scottish changes are being fully evaluated by various research bodies.

POSTSCRIPT It is very tempting to conclude that the Scots have cleared the jungle, replacing it by neat rows of trees (Scots pines?), but the influences at work on the English and Welsh scene are more complex and will accordingly take longer to resolve. There is a strong body of opinion in favour of preserving the variety, although it tends not to include those responsible for counselling young people about their future. Even with good information, the variety of curriculum and organisation is too much for many parents and young people to grasp.

The changes still needing to be made will probably justify *Signposts 1990*.

Educational & economic activity of 16 to 18 year old persons. (All figures are January percentages).



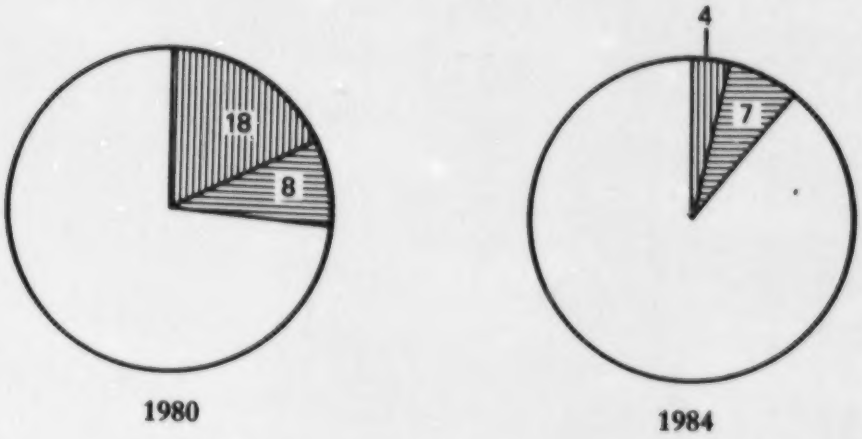
Total – 2.3m

Total – 2.6m

Total – 2.7m

- School
- Further Education
- Employment with part-time study
- Other Employment
- YTS/YOP
- Unemployed

Part-time day study & training for 16 to 18 year olds (private sector only)
Percentages for January 1980 & 1984



▨ – 16 year olds

▤ – 17 & 18 year olds

(Source: DES Statistical Bulletin 5/85 Feb.85)

APPENDIX 2

Examination Entries of the Major FE Bodies in 1984

CGLI

CGLI Foundation	19,115
Vocational Preparation (General)	4,203
Communication Skills	48,566
Numeracy	26,096
Specific Vocational Examinations	463,293

RSA

Total Entries	591,184
Vocational Preparation Courses	3,486
Practical Profiles	2,290
Basic Clerical Procedures	1,110
SLAPONS (Numeracy Profile)	8,318

B/TEC

(Registrations figures only, since registration can be valid for several years)

BTEC General Certificate }	all Business	23,742
BTEC General Diploma	Studies	11,695
BTEC National Certificate }	Remaining	55,161
BTEC National Diploma	8 sectors	40,419
Technician Studies		1,478
'Records of Success'		17,730

APPENDIX 3

A Collection of Cores and Two Vocational Structures

1 The Common Core Aims (12) from **A Basis for Choice** (FEU 1980)

Aim 1
To bring about an informed perspective as to the role and status of a young person in an adult society and the world of work.

Aim 2
To provide a basis from which a young person can make an informed and realistic decision with respect to his or her immediate future.

Aim 3
To bring about continuing development of physical and manipulative skills in both vocational and leisure contexts, and an appreciation of those skills in others.

Aim 4
To bring about an ability to develop satisfactory personal relationships with others.

Aim 5
To provide a basis on which the young person acquires a set of moral values applicable to issues in contemporary society.

Aim 6
To bring about a level of achievement in literacy and numeracy appropriate to ability, and adequate to meet the basic demands of contemporary society.

Aim 7
To bring about competence in a variety of study skills likely to be demanded of the young person.

Aim 8
To encourage the capacity to approach various kinds of problems methodically and effectively, and to plan and evaluate courses of action.

Aim 9
To bring about sufficient political and economic literacy to understand the social environment and participate in it.

Aim 10
An appreciation of the physical and technological environments and the relationship between these and the needs of man in general, and working life in particular.

Aim 11

To bring about a development of the coping skills necessary to promote self sufficiency in the young people.

Aim 12

To bring about a flexibility of attitude and a willingness to learn, sufficient to manage future changes in technology and career.

2 The YTS Core (MSC 1985)

(i) Number
(ii) Communication
(iii) Problem solving
(iv) Practical

3 The main aims of the core study areas (10) from CPVE (Joint Board, 1985)

(i) *Personal and Career Development*
Main Aim: To develop in young people a perception of their potential role and status in an adult, multicultural society, including the world of work.

(ii) *Industrial, Social and Environmental Studies*
Main Aim: To develop knowledge of the workings of modern industry and society and a capacity to cope with the limitations and opportunities afforded.

(iii) *Communication*
Main Aim: To develop communication skills as a way of structuring relationships between people in a changing and multicultural society.

(iv) *Social Skills*
Main Aim: To develop ability to make effective personal and working relationships and to promote self-reliance.

(v) *Numeracy*
Main Aim: To develop mathematics as a communication skill to levels adequate to meet basic demands of contemporary society, and to provide a foundation appropriate to the acquisition of further skills.

(vi) *Science and Technology*
Main Aims: To develop understanding of science and technology, and their relationship to everyday life, and competence in the application of practical, scientific methods.

(vii) *Information Technology*
Main Aim: To develop appreciation of the implications of Information Technology (IT) for society and the individual and to provide the opportunity to acquire a practical introduction to its basic applications.

(viii) *Creative Development*
Main Aim: For young people both to become aware of their own creativity and develop their powers of critical judgement by experiencing, originating and participating in a range of creative and expressive activities.

(ix) *Practical Skills*
Main Aim: To develop practical, perceptual and related social skills within a variety of contexts.

(x) *Problem Solving*
Main Aim: To develop the confidence and ability to learn independently, to solve problems, to adapt to changing circumstances and situations, and to appreciate the value of developing self-reliance and self-organisation in all spheres of life.

4 The Occupational Training Families used in YTS (Institute of Manpower Studies, 1983)

OTF NO.	*OCCUPATIONS*	*KEY PURPOSE*
1	Administrative Clerical, and Office Services	Information Processing
2	Agriculture, Horticulture, Forestry and Fisheries	Nurturing and gathering living resources
3	Craft and Design	Creating single or small numbers of objects using hand or power tools

4	Installation, Maintenance and Repair	Applying known procedures for making equipment work
5	Technical and Scientific	Applying known principles to making things work or usable
6	Manufacturing and Assembly	Transforming metallic and non-metallic materials through shaping, constructing and assembling into products
7	Processing	Intervening into the working of machines when necessary
8	Food preparation and service	Transform and handle edible matter
9	Personal Service and sales	Satisfying the needs of individual customers
10	Community and health services	Meeting socially defined needs of the community
11	Transport Services	Moving goods and people

5 The Vocational Study Categories used in CPVE

(i) Business and Administrative Services
(ii) Technical Services
(iii) Production
(iv) Distribution
(v) Services to People

APPENDIX 4

GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS (some of them)

AEB	Associated Examining Board (for GCE)
ABC	A Basis for Choice (FEU report)
ALE	Associated for Liberal Education
BACIE	British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education
BEC	Business Education Council
B/TEC	B/TEC Business and Technician Education Council
CCETSW	Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work
CEE	Certificate of Extended Education
CFE	Certificate of Further Education
CGLI	City and Guilds of London Institute
CRAC	Careers Research and Advice Centre
CSE	Certificate of Secondary Education
DATEC	Design and Art Committee of the Business and Technician Education Council
DES	Department of Education and Science
DHSS	Department of Health and Social Security
DoE	Department of Employment
ESN	Educationally Subnormal (M) Moderate (S) Severe
FE	Further Education
FEU	Further Education Unit
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education (proposed common examination)
ILEA	Inner London Education Authority
IMS	Institute of Manpower Studies
ITB	Industrial Training Board
LEA	Local Education Authority
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
NAFE	Non-Advanced Further Education (the focus of this book)
NATFHE	National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education
NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research

NICEC	National Institute for Careers Education and Counselling
NNEB	National Nursery Examinations Board
NTI	New Training Initiative
RAC	Regional Advisory Council
REB	Regional Examining Body
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
SCOTEC, SCOTBEC	TEC and BEC for Scotland
SCOTVEC	Scottish Vocational Education Council
TEC	Technician Education Council
TOPS	Training Opportunities Scheme
UEI	Union of Educational Institutions
UVP	Unified Vocational Preparation
YOP	Youth Opportunities Programme (MSC)
YTS	Youth Training Scheme (replaced YOP and UVP)

APPENDIX 5

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The objects for which **The Further Education Unit (FEU)** is established are to promote, encourage and develop the efficient provision of further education in the United Kingdom and for that purpose:
a) to review and evaluate the range of existing further education curricula and programmes and to identify overlap, duplication, deficiencies and inconsistencies therein;
b) to determine priorities for action to improve the provision of further education and to make recommendations as to how such improvements can be effected;
c) to carry out studies in further education and to support investigations of and experimentation in, and the development of further education curricula and to contribute to and assist in the evaluation of initiatives in further education;
d) to disseminate and publish information and to assist in the dissemination and publication of information about recommendations for and experiments and developments in further education.

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